The Outlook

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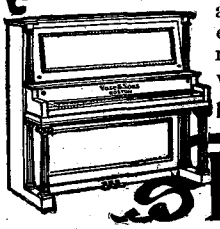

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The Outlook

SATURDAY, SEPTEMBER 30, 1905

The Anti-Rebate Laws Can be Enforced

Two months and a half ago The Outlook, in commenting on the Federal Grand Jury's indictments of the beef packers at Chicago, said that while the evidence against the corporation charged with soliciting rebates from railroad companies was specific and on its face convincing, it would be only fair to defer judgment until the defense had been heard. No one not in the secrets of the Government prosecution could have divined the dramatic ending of that case, when four officers of the company stood up last week before Judge Humphrey, and, having through counsel entered pleas of guilty, received their sentences under the Federal statute in such case made and provided. These men were accused of unlawfully combining and agreeing to solicit rebates for their corporation from the Michigan Central, the Chicago, Rock Island, and Pacific, the Grand Trunk Western, the Lehigh Valley, the Boston and Maine, and the Mobile and Ohio Railroads. It was charged that the defendants conspired with one another in presenting to the railroad companies pretended claims for damages which were in fact claims for rebates. The scene in the court-room is thus described by the New York "Times" correspondent:

> The scene in court when the four defendants entered was most interesting. All the defendants except Weil went immediately before the bar, the center of the gaze of every person in the crowded court-room. The three traffic managers are young men, and they showed considerable emotion. Weil, as he entered the room, slipped into a seat near the door. He is an elderly man, weighing more than one hundred and seventy pounds. His face was deeply lined, showing the suffering he has passed through since he was indicted. . . .
>
> After looking steadily at the defendants for a moment, the Judge began speaking. The other men looked squarely at the Judge.
>
> "You are charged with conspiracy to commit an offense against the United States laws," said Judge Humphrey. "Your counsel have entered pleas of guilty, and if you have anything further to say, you are at liberty to speak."
>
> The three younger men shook their heads; Weil continued to look at the floor and made no sign.
>
> "Punishment for this offense as fixed by Congress has a wide range, giving the Court unusual latitude, ranging from a nominal fine without imprisonment to a heavy fine and two years' imprisonment, all in the discretion of the Court. I am disposed to consider this case with reasonable moderation. The sentence of the Court in the case of the defendant Weil will be a fine of $10,000 and costs, and commitment to the county jail until the fine is paid, and in the cases of Todd, Skipworth, and Cusey a fine of $5,000 and costs, with the same provision in regard to payment."

❀

Penalty for the Past; Warning for the Future

We give our readers this report because it makes clear that the punishment inflicted was not merely the fine; that probably will be paid, if it has not been already paid, by the corporation. But no corporation can indemnify the culprits for the disgrace involved in the successful criminal prosecution of them as violators of the laws of the land. In fact, it was because this disgrace had already so affected the health of one of the defendants that the plea of guilty was accepted, with the proviso that the penalty should be a fine not accompanied by imprisonment. Public opinion is most potent both as a restraint and as an incentive; and this scene will do much to crystallize a public opinion against the practice of rebates, which has hitherto been condoned as necessary or applauded as "smart." There is additional warning also in the fact that in this case the rebates were cleverly concealed under the pretense of being paid as damages. The incident is also a sufficient refutation of the fears of those who thought that the failure of the Government to prosecute Mr. Morton because the Santa Fé had granted re-

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bates practically established the principle that individuals could not be punished for criminal acts perpetrated in the name and on the behalf of corporations. In that case the Government refused to prosecute Mr. Morton because there was no evidence to connect him with the offense other than the mere fact that he was an officer of the corporation. In the beef trust case the Government established such evidence, secured an indictment, and has pressed it through to a successful issue. Combining the two incidents, their lesson may be thus stated: The fact that a man is an officer of a corporation is not of itself evidence that he is guilty of complicity in its criminal acts, but, when evidence of such complicity can be secured, the fact that they were perpetrated as corporate acts and for the benefit of the corporation is no defense and will not secure his escape.

❀

The Insurance Investigation

The admission by President McCall, of the New York Life Insurance Company, as reported in these columns last week, that about $150,000 had been paid by his company to the Republican National Committee in the last three Presidential elections, was followed by the assertion on Mr. McCall's part that he had been urgently solicited for campaign contributions by the Democratic managers in the last Presidential election; that such contributions were even solicited by persons who now denounce the whole system of corporation contribution to political funds; and that Judge Parker himself, when Chairman of the New York State Democratic Campaign Committee, never wearied in soliciting contributions. Judge Parker promptly replied, so far as the last National campaign is concerned, by asserting that he neither solicited nor countenanced the soliciting of contributions from corporations, but, on the other hand, had positively directed his campaign managers not to accept money from any corporation. So far as we have seen, however, Judge Parker has not denied Mr. McCall's charge with reference to the State Democratic campaigns. On another page The Outlook discusses editorially the principles involved and the legal enactments desirable in this matter of political contributions from corporations. The Committee next took up the payments of money by the New York Life to Mr. Andrew Hamilton in Albany. The $100,000 referred to in our report last week was paid to Mr. Hamilton, Mr. McCall said, in connection with a real estate transaction; but it was shown that other large sums were paid to him, and that the books seemed to show an indebtedness to the New York Life of $235,000, while his bank account showed a balance of less than $200. Mr. Hamilton acts for the company in matters relating to "taxation and legislation," and spends much of his time in Albany. It has been generally reported by the press that he is supposed to represent the interests of three great insurance companies at Albany, and that his services are directed to the end of preventing hostile and injurious legislation rather than that of procuring favorable legislation. However that may be, it is admitted that no itemized account exists in the books of the company of the amounts spent by Mr. Hamilton in its behalf, nor of the purposes for which these sums were spent. Mr. McCall declared that he personally audited and passed Mr. Hamilton's bills, but he did not give a complete statement of what services Mr. Hamilton had rendered. The latter part of the week was largely spent in further inquiry into the question of joint accounts and syndicate transactions, with Mr. George W. Perkins, of the New York Life and also of J. P. Morgan & Co., as the principal witness. The main attempt by Mr. Hughes, the Committee's counsel, was directed to show that the officers of the insurance companies, sometimes at least, were too generous in their treatment of the partner in the joint account or of the other members in the syndicate; that, though the insurance companies have profited by these transactions, the profits were sometimes unfairly divided; and that other interests than those of the policy-holders at times actuated the directors or officers of these companies. That this was so in the case of the Equitable every well-informed business

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man now believes—last week, for instance, President Morton, of the Equitable, announced that he had found that $700,000 had been paid under the old régime out of its treasury in one transaction, with no record on the books, and that he would sue to recover. Nothing equally flagrant has been shown in the case of the other large companies, but public belief that present methods offer opportunity and temptation in this direction has been confirmed. There has also been general condemnation of the tricky and disingenuous methods in the so-called "window-dressing" transactions in which, as in the case of the unprofitable International Mercantile Marine investment, by fictitious sales or loans, the New York Life was made to appear in its annual statement as not the owner of undesirable securities which were really and morally, although not technicaliy, its property.

❀

The Situation in Philadelphia

"Philadelphia is certainly no longer corrupt, but we will have to wait until after election to see whether she is now contented." So declared Mayor Weaver in an address last week to the Merchants' and Travelers' Association of Philadelphia. During the summer months the work of purging the Philadelphia administration from corrupt political influences has gone steadily forward. It took the members of the police force a long time to realize that Director Potter meant what he said, and that the police were expected to serve the city and the city only. It required a good many hard knocks and a very considerable number of dismissals, but the force now seems to appreciate that efficient police duty is the only duty expected of it. Director Potter has just issued an order forbidding patrolmen to contribute to political funds under penalty of dismissal. In other departments the change has been equally notable. The civil service system has been completely rescued, and, under the admirable direction of Secretary Riter, has been honestly and rigidly enforced. The Mayor has supported Mr. Riter in his efforts, and a number of important appointments have been made upon a strictly merit basis without any reference to politics. The Chief of the Bureau of Highways was an unknown man so far as Philadelphia was concerned, although he had an excellent record in the Federal service, and was appointed because he passed highest in the examination, and because his past record was found, after rigid inquiry, to be a good one.

❀

The Issues in City and State

The issue between the Republican machine and the citizens is now clearly drawn. Frightened at the extent of the popular indignation, the Republican City Committee withdrew its candidates, all of whom were exceedingly vulnerable, because typical of the machine and its methods, and replaced them with eminently respectable candidates, so far as character and past record are concerned. The citizens, through the City party, have nominated a strong ticket composed of men who have been actively identified with the reform movement, and the head of the ticket, Mr. Wilson H. Brown, has for many years been an able and efficient Councilman, with a record for good public service. He was the first to attack the gas lease in Councils, and before and since has been bold and unflinching in his attacks on iniquitous measures. The City Party Convention held on September 20 was one of the finest bodies of men ever assembled in political convention in Philadelphia. It represented the aroused, intelligent citizenship of the city, and was characterized by deep earnestness and determination. On the floor of the Convention were many leading business men, like John H. Converse and Mahlon N. Kline, and many earnest clergymen. The Democrats have had the good sense for once to fall in behind independent sentiment and have adopted the entire City party ticket. In the State at large the fight is being made on the Republican organization through the Lincoln party, which is supporting William H. Berry, the reform Mayor of Chester, who is the Democratic candidate for State Treasurer. The Republican candidate, J. Lee Plummer, has been a member of the Legislature for

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two terms, and has a notorious record as a subservient messenger of the bosses. The defeat of personal registration in the sessions of 1903 and 1905 was largely due to his efforts. Whether the people of Pennsylvania are so thoroughly aroused as those of Philadelphia remains to be seen, but there is a wholesome spirit of revolt throughout the State.

❀

Political Disturbances in Cuba

The local elections now taking place in Cuba are preliminary to the Presidential election of December. All the indications are that President Palma will be re-elected by a substantial majority. Under his administration Cuba has enjoyed four years of peace, security, and prosperity such as have never before been known in the history of the island. It is believed that most Cubans of intelligence recognize this and are heartily in favor of that orderly and conservative self-government for which President Palma stands. That there should be a party of political opposition, however, is inevitable and even desirable, and it is Cuba's misfortune that political opposition with the extreme radical element is likely to take the form of incipient revolution; for in Cuba, as in other Spanish-American countries, it seems to be instinctive with a certain element to confuse insurrection with progress. The disturbance of last week in Cienfuegos illustrates this. Enrique Villuendas, a supporter of Gomez, Palma's rival for the Presidency, and a leader in the so-called Liberal party, was killed while resisting an attempt by the police to arrest him, and after one or more of the police had been killed. It is reported that his house was found to be filled with arms and even with dynamite bombs. The incident has led some American papers to question whether the time is not at hand when the United States, under the guardianship imposed upon it by the Platt Amendment, should not interfere to preserve order in Cuba. But there seems to be no reason to suppose that the Government of Cuba is not amply able to enforce order, and it is axiomatic that interference should be based on something more than single incidents of disorder such as that just described. If the time comes when fair political opposition is suppressed by force in Cuba, or when the Government feels unable to withstand the attacks of revolutionaries, the United States will probably act promptly and effectively; but no such condition now exists.

❀

A New Hague Conference

A year ago President Roosevelt promised a delegation from the Interparliamentary Union to endeavor to bring about a second Peace Conference at The Hague. By his direction, on October 30, 1904, Secretary Hay addressed a note to our diplomatic representatives in the capitals of the nations signatory to the first Hague Convention, instructing them to invite the Governments to which they were accredited to send representatives to a second Peace Conference. Every Power thus addressed responded favorably, with one exception—Russia. The Czar, while accepting the principle of the Conference, declared that, so long as the Russo-Japanese war lasted, it was not practicable for Russia to enter into such a Conference, and therefore pointed out the propriety of postponing it. Japan had already consented to participate in the Conference, provided that none of the questions of the war then existing should be discussed. The announcement last week that the Czar and not the President had issued the call for a second Conference created surprise. It was clear that the step could not have been taken without a previous understanding between the Czar and the President, and that the latter had relinquished his part in it to the former. By this graceful act of self-abnegation Mr. Roosevelt gains far more, morally, in international consideration than would have been possible had he himself issued the call for the second Conference. Moreover, Mr. Roosevelt is not merely effacing himself as a compliment to the originator of the Conferences: every observer of recent events will recognize the fact that a triumphant pacificator is vacating his position in favor of a vacillating war-wager, to whom those events have

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brought harassing humiliation. Though the forthcoming Conference may disapprove by implication of recent Russian acts—the Red Sea, Dogger Bank, and Madagascar affairs, to mention but three—we hope that, through this friendly office from America, the Czar will somewhat retrieve the imperial prestige so greatly impaired by eighteen months of continual disaster.

❀

The Treaty of Karlstad

Last week at Karlstad, Sweden, the eight Commissioners from Sweden and Norway concluded their negotiations regarding the dissolution of the union which for ninety years has existed between the two countries. The Commissioners were, for Sweden, Messrs. Lundeberg, the Premier; Count Wachtmeister, Foreign Minister; Minister of Education Hammarskjold, and Minister Staaf, a member of the Cabinet without portfolio. For Norway they were Premier Michelsen, Foreign Minister Loevland, President of the Storthing Berner, and Minister of the Interior Vogt. The question most at issue related to Sweden's request of Norway to raze the fortresses along the Norwegian frontier. While it is understood that the fortresses close to the frontier are to be razed, the Norwegians rightly refused to abolish those further away, the historic fortresses of Fredriksten and Kongsvinger. At first Sweden refused to agree to an arbitration treaty. "If," as the Christiania "Morgenbladet" justly said, "Norway is prepared to dismantle her new fortifications in order to show her love for peace and desire for a settlement with Sweden, not a gun or a stone shall be moved until the arbitration treaty is signed." Sweden's fear of Norwegian fortresses is, ultimately, a fear of Russian aggression by way of Norway. For the Swedes dread the possible foreign alliances which might be entered into by Norway. In case of a Russian alliance, Sweden would indeed be between two fires. The protocol, as signed by the Commissioners, is now subject to ratification by the Swedish and Norwegian Parliaments. It will then be a treaty. Besides settling the questions above mentioned, it deals with inter-traffic, common waterways, and reindeer pastures. It also provides for compulsory arbitration before the Hague Court of all disputes except matters of vital import. Thus the Treaty of Portsmouth has been quickly followed by another historic event—the Treaty of Karlstad.

❀

The Hungarian Crisis

Last week, at Vienna, following the resignation of the Hungarian Cabinet, the Emperor-King received the five leaders of the Hungarian Coalition parties, Count Julius Andrássy, Francis Kossúth, Baron Banffy, Count Zichy, and Count Albert Ápponyi. Francis Joseph did not yield in his opposition to the proposal that Hungarian should be substituted as the language of command in the Hungarian contingent of the Imperial army, but he invited the Coalition majority to submit proposals for the formation of a Cabinet on the following conditions: (1) that the foreign Austro-Hungarian missions remain united; (2) that all economic questions be revised by negotiations between the two States; (3) that the budget, ordinary contingents to the army, commercial treaties, and the sums required for the Hungarian expenditure of the dual monarchy be immediately voted by the Hungarian Parliament. The Emperor-King pointed out to the Hungarian leaders the responsibility which they would incur in refusing to accept the concessions offered by him, and in maintaining their demands. For further consultation, Francis Joseph referred the Hungarians to Count Goluchowski, the Minister of Foreign Affairs. Now, Count Goluchowski is an Austro-Polish statesman, who has long bitterly fought against the Hungarian opposition, and, so the Hungarians declare, has unjustifiably interfered with their State affairs. The Hungarian leaders obeyed his Majesty, however, and went to Count Goluchowski; but they handed a written document to him, declaring that they maintained their demands in military and other matters, and that the Emperor's programme could not be made to accord with that of the Coalition. They added that they desired to confer not with an Austrian but

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with a Hungarian statesman, as his Majesty's representative, since only a Hungarian citizen could understand Hungarian matters. The Emperor-King was informed of this decision, and promptly appointed as his new representative the Chief Marshal of his Court, Count Cziraky. A new discussion began, but so far the negotiations have unfortunately proved fruitless.

❀

The Russian Duma

Preparations for the congress of zemstvoists and municipal representatives at Moscow this week are attracting less attention than that given to previous similar affairs. Though the programme for discussion is extremely important, embracing criticism of the Czar's plan for a Duma, or Parliament, most observers think that the majority of the delegates are willing to accept the Duma on the present lines as an earnest of further reform. This, however, will probably not prevent a strong minority from presenting its criticism, to the effect that the Duma answers neither the wishes nor the needs of the country, and that elections under prevailing conditions, without freedom of assembly or of the press, are impossible. According to Professor Nuliukov, who was released from confinement on Saturday of last week, the political education of Russia is further advanced than is generally supposed. As evidence he cites the growth of the unions among professional men, which, despite official persecution, already number fifty thousand organized adherents, and the Peasants' Union, formed at the beginning of the present year by fifty peasants and now also with a vast number of members.

❀

The Defense of India

From Simla comes word that work will be begun at once on a railway from Peshawar towards the Afghan frontier. It is said that the railway will run past Michni and follow the north bank of the Kabul to Loishilman and Khula. From this point two routes are available, and the Indian Government has not yet decided which of the two will be followed, this point probably being left to be taken up after arrangements are completed with the Ameer of Afghanistan. A glance at the map of India will show that when the new line is completed there will be direct communication, by means of the Punjab Northern State Railway (which was completed practically to the Afghan boundary long ago), to Lahore and Calcutta, thus bringing all India for military purposes within striking distance of the neutral ground between Russia and England, toward which both have been moving—Russia, however, much the faster—for several decades. The completion of what may properly be called this military line of railway to the Afghan frontier on the Russian side is a natural result of the appointment of Lord Kitchener as Commander-in-Chief in India. Lord Kitchener has made his reputation as "a railway general," first in the Soudan and afterwards in South Africa, and his advent upon the scene in India was promptly followed by an examination of the railway system, with a view to Imperial defense, and especially with reference to defense against the only Power strong enough and with interests great enough to make the frontier defense of India a question of prime importance. The work of thoroughly safeguarding the interests of the Empire in India is now in the hands of one of England's ablest and most energetic generals, and the practically free hand he has been given in military affairs recently by the home Government is sufficient guaranty that the work will be promptly and thoroughly done. To those who have not followed the record of Russian progress through Central Asia, especially within the past quarter of a century, it might seem that the measures Lord Kitchener is taking to defend India, if need be, are unnecessary. As early as 1847 Russia's advance had brought her to the borders of the Khanates of Khiva and Khokand. Khiva was added to the Russian Empire in 1873, while Khokand had submitted six years earlier, when Russia absorbed Turkestan. About ten years later Merv accepted the White Czar as her lord, and since that time, slowly but steadily, Russian power and influence have been extended, until, by

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the construction of the new military line from Orenburg, in European Russia, to Tashkend, and the extension southward now in progress, Russia and England are practically in touch and neighbors in Asiatic dominion. Lord Kitchener seems to have been the first to realize the gravity of the situation and to prepare for all emergencies. The fact that, notwithstanding the war in the Far East, Russia is said to-day to have two hundred thousand men in Central Asia on the Afghan frontier seems to be sufficient ground for the measures Lord Kitchener is taking for the defense of India.

❀

The Hudson Bay Route

Canada is showing a commendable interest in her North Land, and is not only exploring it thoroughly, but is also planning to make its resources available. Especially is this true of the known and supposed gold-bearing lands in the Yukon Territory, and scarcely to a less degree in regard to Hudson Bay and the great and almost unknown region about it. As to the latter, a route is now being explored from Manitoba for the proposed Hudson Bay Railroad as an outlet to Europe for the grain and other productions of Canada's Northwest. The Mounted Police Department of the Northwest is now at work establishing a line of communication overland from Winnipeg to Hudson Bay and along the coast to Cape Fullerton. By extending a branch of her new transcontinental railway, which is now taking shape, to Hudson Bay, and establishing a line of steamers from the Bay terminus, Canada would have, during a few months of the year at least, an alternative route to Europe for her great grain fields. The short haul from Manitoba would then be supplemented by a sea route to Europe shorter by about eight hundred miles than that by way of Montreal, Boston, or New York. Whether such a sea route really is practicable is as yet a doubtful question which Canada has resolutely set about determining. Last year the Dominion Government sent out an expedition headed by Dr. Low, of the Canadian Geological Survey, and the Neptune, the largest and best of the sealing steamers of the Newfoundland fleet, was chartered for its use. Visiting the various Eskimo stations and villages in Cumberland Gulf and elsewhere on the shores of the Bay, the expedition was able not only to chart a large portion of the coast waters but also to learn much of the resources of the mainland. The latter abounds in caribou, deer, polar bears, and other animals. The waters of the Bay and of the rivers emptying into it abound in fine varieties of fish, and in the Bay itself whales, walruses, and seals are found in great numbers. Altogether the year's work included 1,175 miles of coast line surveyed, 91 miles of chain and micrometric surveys, and something over 600 miles of geological investigation on the west coast of the Bay from the head of Chesterfield Inlet to the head of Wager Inlet. In all, the surveys made last year by the Neptune party aggregated about 2,041 miles. Another expedition in the same steamer left St. John's, Newfoundland, last month to continue the explorations and to determine finally, if possible, the practicability of the proposed Hudson Bay Route.

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The International Prison Congress

Americans may well take a deep interest in the doings of the great Congress which has recently held its seventh session in Budapest. Founded by an American, Dr. E. C. Wines, thirty-five years ago, it has now for the first time elected an American President for the next five years, and it will hold its eighth session in Washington in 1910. Of even more interest is the fact that this Congress with unanimity adopted resolutions approving the principles which are observed in several American States, notably the placing of children in families when possible, cottage institutions when institutions are needed, daily life and work in groups, with separate rooms only at night; and, above all, the establishment of juvenile courts and the appointment of good probation officers. To the uninitiated these matters seem to belong rather to a child-saving society than to a Prison Congress. But the spirit of the times is felt intensely in this progressive body of men and women

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known as the Congrès Pénitentiaire International, and more stress is laid on preventive work than on any other side of the penological problem. The knowledge of what the United States is doing in establishing special tribunals for children has spread surprisingly in Europe, thanks to papers on the subject which have been read before conferences in Liége and other places, and to the full report on Children's Courts prepared by Samuel J. Barrows, the President-elect of the International Prison Congress, which has already found its way to many countries, and abstracts of which are being translated into numerous tongues. The possibility of keeping children out of mixed court-rooms and giving them a semi-parental as well as judicial examination when accused of crime awakened great enthusiasm among those who heard the discussions. There was also a warm expression of the need of having all children who are brought before the courts carefully observed and studied by medical men, trained to know the action of the mind as well as the functions of the body. The discussions of these important subjects were not a mere beating of the air, but the practical men and women who took part in them will be able to turn these ideas into practice in the various countries they represent, from Mexico to Russia, from Cuba to Japan. For while the peace propositions were under consideration in Portsmouth, men from Japan and Russia were considering together methods of justice to the prisoner, the protection of society from crime, and the prevention of wrong-doing in the young. Though the fourth section was wholly devoted to considering preventive work, the other three were not less busy in dealing with the subjects of penal law and kindred topics. One section made an excellent report on the best way to deal with prisoners addicted to drink, the decision being that special long-continued treatment in institutions for that purpose would alone fit such men to remain temperate in habit after their discharge. There is a widespread belief that intemperance is uncommon in Europe, but the experience of prison officials there is like that of men in America—that it plays a large part in the criminal life of the people, and that there, as here, the drink evil is one that has to be fought hand to hand.

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Philanthropic Training

Among the host of institutions now about to recommence their annual courses of study are three of high importance as yet but little known—the Boston School for Social Workers, the Chicago Institute of Social Science and Arts, and the New York School of Philanthropy. Their common purpose is scientific training for social and philanthropic work. In 1898 the Summer School of Philanthropy, giving a six weeks' course of such training, was opened in New York by the Charity Organization Society. Commenting upon this enterprise, The Outlook in 1901 strongly indorsed the plea then made by its promoters for the means to offer an extended and thorough curriculum, more adequate to the needs of the vast and diversified field to be cultivated. That the need has been so soon recognized and so well provided for in these three institutions, now offering under university auspices instruction and practical training by specialists in every variety of social work, is cause for hearty satisfaction. The Boston School is maintained by Simmons College and Harvard University. The Chicago Institute is affiliated with the University of Chicago, and the New York School with Columbia University, as well as in close connection with the Charity Organization Society, whose General Secretary, Dr. Edward T. Devine, has lately accepted a professorship in Columbia. The courses, longer and shorter, now open are attractive to a wide range of interests. On one hand are practical workers of many kinds, up to managers of charitable societies and directors of public institutions; on another are teachers, physicians, theological students, and some clergymen wishing enlightenment in the practical methods and fundamental principles of an intelligent and effective philanthropy. Then there are college graduates desiring a course of professional training in such a line that will count toward a post-graduate degree. In

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view of the public good likely to accrue from the opening of these unprecedented opportunities it is desirable that the widest publicity should be given to their announcement.

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Mr. Frank Damrosch as a Musical Educator

The resignation of Mr. Frank Damrosch as Director of Music in the public schools of Manhattan and the Bronx was announced recently. Since 1897 he has rendered great service to the city of New York. The acceptance of his resignation is due only to the fact that his new duties as head of the recently established Institute of Musical Art make it impossible for the city to retain him. Like his father, the late Dr. Leopold Damrosch, he has been conspicuously a musical educator. There are many teachers of music in America, but the men who have educated American musical taste and have trained the musical abilities of the American people have been few. Although a comparatively young man—scarcely more than forty-six years old—he has been the leader of the movement to create in America a musical democracy. He is, indeed, the founder of the People's Singing Classes which in New York have attained under his direction a high degree of efficiency and have made musical appreciation the possession, not of the aristocratic few, but of the many. His influence has been all the greater because of his inexorable standards. It is he who is the Director of the Musical Art Society, which presents every year in New York the most intricate and beautiful of contrapuntal choral compositions. He is also the successor of his father as Director of the Oratorio Society. As a supervising official in the public school system he has been a musical educator of children. As leader of the People's Singing Classes he has been the educator in music of the masses. As Director of the Musical Art Society he has been the educator of those whose musical taste is already refined. Although his success as a conductor has been marked—for in the concerts of the Musical Art Society he has succeeded in attaining almost perfection in choral singing—he has never given evidence of that professionalism which disdains any musical performance that is not technically without blemish. Like the true artist that he is, he values primarily the soul of music, and only secondarily its husk of performance. For that very reason he has been eminently successful as a cultivator of musical appreciation in this country.

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The Christian Endeavor Memorial Fund

To mark the twenty-fifth anniversary of the establishing by the Rev. Francis E. Clark of the first Young People's Society of Christian Endeavor, it has been proposed that a memorial fund be raised. Like a Sunday-school, a Society of Christian Endeavor is a local organization responsible only to its own members and to the church with which it is connected. It is, indeed, so closely connected with the church that it might be characterized as one of the church's departments. Various Societies of Christian Endeavor have, however, from almost the beginning formed unions among themselves for the promotion of their special purposes. There are local unions comprising societies in neighboring communities, and there is a United Society of Christian Endeavor which serves as a medium of co-operation between all the societies of the country. Indeed, so widely has the movement spread that there is a World's Christian Endeavor Union. Unlike the officers of many other interdenominational organizations, the national and international officers working on behalf of the Societies of Christian Endeavor are paid no salaries by their constituencies. They are supported altogether by outside labors. Their income depends on such activities as publishing an organ of the movement, printing topic cards for prayer-meetings and other devices for the use of the societies, managing a book-store, and the like. It is proposed that the memorial fund be used for the erection of a building to be used as international headquarters. It is expected that a large enough part of this building can be rented to provide an income at least for the founder and international president. This suggestion is reasonable.

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Dr. Clark, who has devoted his life to the Societies of Christian Endeavor, certainly deserves what any man in his position ought to receive, an adequate income. Without the central body, powerless as it is to exercise authority, the Societies of Christian Endeavor would be mortally weakened. Those who believe, therefore, in the Christian Endeavor movement have now good occasion to show their faith by their works, in providing for this essential central body adequate permanent means of support. The Christian Endeavor movement has not been free from defects, but it has done what nothing else had before succeeded in doing—it has revealed to the churches themselves the force they possess in the young people among their congregations. Other young people's societies have arisen and have succeeded, but the Society of Christian Endeavor, young as it is, was the pioneer. No one can tell what good it has wrought, and no one can guess how it may further develop. It is one of the typical religious movements of our times. Upon its prosperity and wholesomeness depends the religious life of multitudes of young people.

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Thomas John Barnardo

Few people to-day realize how modern is systematic relief of dependent children; indeed, how modern all intelligent effort to diminish the dependent classes. Dr. Thomas John Barnardo, who, like the American Charles L. Brace, was one of the earliest to promote organized rescue of street children, died last week. Within the space of his lifetime England has experienced what is practically a social revolution, and Dr. Barnardo's share in that revolution has been very large. It is an interesting fact that Dr. Barnardo himself was the means of revealing to Lord Shaftesbury the conditions under which London waifs existed. Dr. Barnardo was born in Ireland in 1845. An extreme and passionate Protestant, he set out to London to prepare himself for missionary work in China. That his ideals of missionary work were then humanitarian as well as doctrinal may be inferred from the fact that as a part of his preparation he undertook the study of medicine. While a student in the English metropolis he found himself in the midst of a cholera epidemic. Instead of fleeing the city, as others did, he remained and began his missionary work at home in relief of the sick. This gave him a knowledge that he had not had before of the conditions of the poor. Like other medical students, he had long hours of work; but his two "free nights" in the week he devoted to the conduct of a "ragged school." Incident after incident gave him an intimate acquaintance with the destitution of thousands of children in that city. Instead of going to China, therefore, he remained in Great Britain, and as a result of his life nearly sixty thousand orphan children have been taken from the streets, put under wholesome influences, trained, and given a chance in life. This means not only that sixty thousand individuals have been aided, but that a threatening social condition has been relieved. It means that the army of parasites has been robbed of regiments, and that the army of producers has been reinforced. In contrast to the inadequacy of the Government workhouses, the homes established by Dr. Barnardo have had an astonishing record. His undertaking has involved an enormous amount of executive work—the conduct of trade schools, the administration of charities, the maintenance of hospitals, the direction of excursions, the care of foundlings, and a scientific management of emigration. The present tendency in the relief of destitute children is towards providing them with homes rather than putting them into institutions; but the most enlightened modern methods would be to-day impossible had they not been preceded by Dr. Barnardo's beneficent work.

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George Macdonald

It is over thirty years since George Macdonald visited this country and won appreciation by his clear-sighted and sympathetic lectures on the great English poets. He was then at the height of his reputation as a writer; and his death last week at the age of eighty-one, and after many years of almost complete literary inactivity because of failing health,

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emphasizes the fact that he belonged, in time of working vigor at least, to a group of writers of the past rather than of the contemporary generation. Indeed, Macdonald was several years younger than Charles Kingsley, with whom his name has sometimes been coupled because they were equally earnest lovers of humanity, and were both in a sense didactic, although two writers could not possibly differ more widely in style and literary method. George Macdonald's first three volumes were poems; and in all he did later the man was essentially a poet. Not infrequently he drifted into mysticism, and then perhaps a strain of Celtic raptness is evident. As a rule, however, his imagination was kept under control; but it was always present and always fine and sincere. The eagerness with which his stories were read by an audience as wide as the English-speaking world, and one almost of all sorts and conditions of men, would prove conclusively, if proof were needed, that in fiction idealism, pure imagination, and poetical quality have their place as well as photographic realism. Yet it must be added that Macdonald's men and women are flesh and blood, not types or abstractions. David Elginbrod (the hero of his first, and many think, his best romance) is as real as any character can be, and one follows his soul-strivings and personal life-history with intense interest, despite the book's clumsiness of construction and paucity of plot. The same is true of Robert Falconer in the story of that name; while "Annals of a Quiet Neighborhood" abounds in true and simple hearts. It has been said that some of his books are now unreadable as fiction because of their excess of theological argument; that "young ladies do not nowadays sit beside young men on sofas and ask for proofs of the existence of the Deity." But even this part of Macdonald's writing was in its day almost dramatic in its intensity, because it voiced the terrible struggle against formalism and rigid creed-interpretation of a man afire with deep and genuine religious fervor, a nature instinct with spirituality. Dr. Macdonald began his career as an Independent minister, but many of his brethren thought his novels not merely heretical, but almost blasphemous, and did not hesitate to say so. The acerbity of his opponents never greatly ruffled Macdonald's temper, and in time a discussion far warmer than that which later followed the publication of "Robert Elsmere" quietly died away. One result, however, was that Macdonald resigned his pastorate and became a lay member of the Church of England. In addition to the three books already referred to, he published a long list of works of varying success; among the best are "Alec Forbes," "Sir Gibbie," "St. George and St. Michael" (a tale of Roundheads and Cavaliers, originally published in this journal), and two capital books for young people, "Ranald Bannerman's Boyhood" and "At the Back of the North Wind"—both stories wholesome in tone and abounding in incident.

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Reclaiming Idaho's Desert

Ruskin made the world familiar with the beauty and grandeur of mountains, but it has remained for the inventive and energetic people who live upon the slopes of America's great Rocky Mountain system to illustrate on a grand scale the multiform uses to which mountains may be put. By harnessing the streams of the Sierras, San Francisco, Portland, Seattle, Tacoma, and half a dozen other cities of the Pacific slope now run their street-car systems and light plants, while by hydro-electric energy most of the machinery of all kinds is propelled. By further husbanding of the mountain streams and rivers vast areas of what until within recent years were known simply as desert lands have been reclaimed to the uses of man and civilization, and furnish homes for hundreds of thousands of people. One of the notable but by no means the largest of these irrigation schemes is that now approaching completion, by which the southern part of Idaho will soon be transformed from a sage-brush desert into hundreds of farms and orchards of apple, pear, peach, and other trees. This vast Idaho desert, soon to be awakened with a new touch of life, stretches across the entire southern border of the State.

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The land in itself, though now yielding only a sparse growth of sage-brush, is as fertile as any in the United States, and lacks only water from the mountains now going to waste to make it an ideal home for man, able to support thousands of families. The National Government, with wise forethought, will soon supply this agent which will cause towns and cities and fruitful farms to spring up as by magic along the Snake River Desert. The irrigation works which will be completed in a few months will cost only a little more than a third of a million of dollars, but these are only part of a vast system which will cost millions and add a new empire of fertile lands to the domains of the United States. The Minidoka dam, so called from the town of that name which lies about six miles north of it, is one of the simplest of engineering feats. It consists simply of a dam built across the Snake River at a point clearly designated by nature, by means of which the water of the river will be raised to a height of forty-seven feet, when a large part of the flow of the river will be diverted to the north and the south sides of the present channel, and made to irrigate, by gravity alone, sixty-five thousand acres of land which is now only a desert. The bulk of this irrigable land lies to the north of Snake River, having a length of fifteen miles and an average breadth of twelve miles. Almost an equal area will eventually be irrigated on the south side, but the Minidoka dam is intended to supply water for only about eight thousand acres on the south, the remainder being left to the completion of other reclamation works. The land reclaimed will be divided into farms of eighty acres each, except within a mile and a half of the three towns located within its limits, where the unit will be forty acres. Under the intensive culture such as is common in the Great Yakhima Valley and other irrigated regions of the West, even forty acres makes a big and profitable farm where the best fruits and vegetables can be raised, which bring fancy prices in the markets of the East. It is expected that the first crop on the Minidoka reclaimed lands will be harvested during the coming year.

Corporate Campaign Contributions

The disclosure of last week that the New York Life Insurance Company made a contribution of nearly $50,000 to the Republican campaign fund in the last election gives not the least warrant for the charges made against Mr. Cortelyou that he was securing funds from the great corporations under implied promises of reward if his demands were complied with and implied threats of punishment if they were not. It is not easy to see what advantage the Administration could have given, nor what injury it could have inflicted, on a life insurance company. Mr. Cortelyou's statement last November that "every part of this fund has come from voluntary contributions, without any demand, importunity, or pressure," is confirmed by the testimony of Mr. McCall in this particular case, who thus explains the reason why the contribution was made by the corporation of which he was the President. "This payment," he said, "was made after very careful deliberation. It was paid because we felt that the assets of the New York Life Insurance Company would be jeopardized by Democratic success." As little justification is there for the charge made by the Springfield "Republican." This money, it says, "was abstracted unlawfully from a trust fund—stolen, taken covertly in part from the pockets of men who never in the world would have given it up for the purpose it was made to serve." Misuse of language by a newspaper may not be as culpable as misuse of funds by a trustee, but it is much more common and not more justifiable. There can be no crime without criminal intent. And when a custom has grown up of corporate contributions to political campaigns, and has been justified to the conscience of the officials on the ground that the financial interests of the corporation will be disastrously affected by the triumph of one of the political parties, it is monstrous to dub as a thief the specific official who acts in compliance with this custom and, as he believes, for the best interests intrusted to his charge. This

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is to ignore moral distinctions, pervert the English language, create sympathy for the accused, and chill and check the sentiment for moral reform which it is exceedingly desirable to strengthen and direct.

For moral reform is greatly needed. Corporate contributions to political campaigns ought to be prohibited. There are three reasons for the prohibition: (1) The corporate funds have not been intrusted to the officials for this purpose. There is justice in the Texas Democrat's criticism of this action, who is reported as saying, "I have been paying premiums to the New York Life for ten years, and now find that it has been using my money to fight my people and my country." (2) Most men are more generous with other people's money than with their own. Our campaign funds are dangerously large. They would be materially and advantageously curtailed if they came wholly out of the pockets of individual subscribers. (3) Though corporate contributions are not necessarily for corrupt purposes, and corruption is not to be presumed without some evidence, nevertheless, so long as they are permitted they open the way to both blackmail and bribery, and are sure to create a widespread suspicion of both. These are entirely adequate reasons for a public opinion, formulated in legislative action, prohibiting such contributions.

There is some question whether Congress can prohibit corporate subscriptions to a Presidential election. The President is elected by electors, and the electors are State, not National, officers. But this question is purely academic. For the Presidential and Congressional elections always take place simultaneously; Congress has power to prohibit all corporate contributions to a Congressional campaign; it would not be practicable for campaign committees to maintain two separate funds, since the same literature, the same meetings, and the same processions are used alike for both President and Congressmen. Moreover, a public opinion sufficient to secure Congressional prohibition would be sufficient, without further legislation, to prevent such contributions to a Presidential fund. The House of Representatives need not even wait for the concurrence of an always insensitive and slow-moving Senate. The House is sole judge of the election of its own members; and it can by general resolution declare that, on proof that funds have been contributed by a corporation to the election of any member, he shall be unseated and a new election ordered.

But such law or such resolution would be only partially effective unless it were accompanied by another law requiring all National political committees to print and publish, and put on file in some Department at Washington, a properly verified statement of all its receipts and expenditures. Unpublished financial transactions on public account are always mischievous. Not only the contributors, the general public have a right to know where campaign funds come from and to what purpose they are put. It is not enough merely to pass a Federal law, as recommended by the President in his last annual message, "directed against bribery and corruption." Any evidence of even the slightest bribery and corruption should be here, as it is in England, sufficient to invalidate the candidate's election; and the opportunity for bribery should be reduced to a minimum, by bringing all the financial transactions of every campaign out into the open. On this matter, happily, the leaders of both the great political parties are agreed; President Roosevelt and ex-Judge Parker, and we believe Mr. Bryan, have spoken to the same effect; and the honest and honorable men of both the great political parties should be able, following their leaders, to frame legislation along these lines, which will make political corruption in America as difficult as it has been made in England since the days of Sir Robert Walpole.

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The Railroad Juggernaut

In the battle of Mukden between the Russian and Japanese forces, the Russian losses were said to amount to about 90,000 men. During the year ending June 30, 1904, the casualties on American railroads amounted to exactly 94,201. Of these, 10,046 were deaths from injuries.

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What does this mean to the reader of this article?

If you live in a village of 850 inhabitants, you may be reasonably sure that some fellow-townsman of yours will be injured by a railroad during the year. If your town contains 17,000 people, it is mathematically certain that twenty of them will meet with an injury before a year has passed, or that enough other injuries will be inflicted in other parts of the country to make up the quota of your community. If the freight train that passed you the other day had a crew of nine men, in nine years every one of them will have been injured; if not, then their good fortune will have been gained at the cost of exceptional misfortune to others.

These are conservative estimates. They are given on the assumption that during the coming year accidents will be about the same as during the year 1903–4. The fact is, however, that risk of injury from railroads has been of late years steadily increasing. The growth of travel accounts for part of the increase in railroad casualties, and the extension of railroad mileage accounts also for a part. The railroads have, of course, rendered every year more and more public service. The more passengers they carry, and the farther they carry them, the more likely they are to inflict injuries. The seriousness of the present situation lies in the fact that, while performing five per cent. more service to the public, the railroads have maimed ten per cent. more of those who traveled, and killed twenty-four per cent. more of them. The public service may be measured in passenger mileage. Thus, if one passenger is carried four miles, or four passengers one mile, or two passengers two miles, the passenger mileage is 4. In the three years from 1901 to 1904 the passenger mileage increased one-quarter; but the number of casualties to all classes of persons increased in the same period not one-quarter but one-half, and the injuries to passengers increased more than three-quarters.

Railroads, of course, are not crippling and killing people at this rate for the fun of the thing. There is no deliberate malice revealed in these figures gathered from the report of the Inter-State Commerce Commission, but there is revealed reckless disregard of human life and safety, if not greed. Every accident on a railroad costs the railroad money. Destruction of rolling stock, expense of removing wrecks and repairing tracks, lawsuits, and damages paid in or out of court, constitute a cost which the railroads would gladly avoid. But safety appliances, higher wages or shorter hours for employees, more efficient superintendence, also constitute a cost to the railroads. The man who thinks solely in terms of dollars and cents balances these two sources of expense—accidents on this hand, improved management on that hand—against each other; and if he finds that, on the whole, the accidents cost less than the improved management, he will let the accidents continue. He will, that is, unless he is prevented by law. Unfortunately, there is no royal way of providing that the man who thinks in dollars and cents shall never control a railroad. There is, however, a way of preventing the money-minded man from bartering human lives for money, and that is by making human lives expensive. So long as the American people hold their own lives cheaply, railroad directors and officials will do so—and no longer.

There are two ways in which the people's regard for their own safety may be impressed upon the minds of those who direct and manage the railroads. One is the direct way—by patronage; the other the indirect way—by Government control.

People who travel want to be comfortable on their journeys, and they make their desire for comfort known. The evidence for this is in the advertisements of railroads setting forth the restful and luxurious appointments of their trains. People wish to travel rapidly and reach their destinations promptly. Competing roads vie with one another in putting on "flyers" and in arranging convenient schedules. When people demand safety in travel, safety—like comfort and speed—will become a commodity which the railroads will value. At present, however, how many of our readers choose one route over another because it is

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known to be safer, more cautiously managed, equipped with a better block system, served by a more carefully disciplined force? Public opinion strong enough to direct somewhat the currents of travel will have effect upon dividends and can therefore in a measure reduce the danger in travel.

This, however, can be only measurably effective. It can affect competing railroad lines; but railroads are becoming more and more consolidated, and less and less amenable to the fear of rivals. Moreover, public opinion thus informally expressed can affect the safety only of passengers; but the casualties to passengers are less than one-seventh of the casualties to employees. In order to make railroads less dangerous to human life, public opinion must express itself formally by enactment of law. In other words, for self-protection the people must secure a larger measure of Government control. In England, when a railroad accident occurs, the Board of Trade, a national body corresponding to our Department of Commerce and Labor, makes an investigation, publishes the facts, and fixes the blame. A national body with similar function and powers is needed in this country. Laws prohibiting grade crossings and dangerous forms of the switch, regulating hours of labor, requiring more safety appliances, and providing for the serious punishment of negligence not merely in employees but in responsible officials, ought to be in force in every State. The people should have their own representatives to inspect these iron highways, see that they are properly guarded and are as well manned as an army or navy.

The right to "life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness" is violated because the public highways are operated solely as private enterprises and for private interests. As long as the American people thus leave to others the control of these inter-State roads, so long they must take their share of blame for the neglect that allows an unpardonable yearly increase in accidents. The fact that railroads unsupervised destroy over ten thousand lives of American citizens in a year justifies the demand for Governmental supervision.

Japan's Opportunity

The Chino-Japanese War in 1895 proved to the Chinese Government the worth of that new type of civilization which Japan had definitely adopted two decades before. It was not, however, until the occupation of Peking by the allies in 1900 that the Chinese Government really realized how ridiculous was its military force, known as the "Eight Banners," with their antiquated armor and their parasols. Hence the Japanese were asked to send some technical instructors in military matters to advise the Chinese generals. The few European officers who formerly held such positions now found that they could do so no longer, partly, perhaps, because a Japanese officer in China is satisfied with a third of the pay that an Englishman or German would demand. Since 1900, Chinese cadet schools have been created in many places, and instruction in them is given either by Japanese or by Chinese trained in Japan. China counts to-day more than three thousand officers instructed in Japanese methods. According to an article by M. Pinon in the latest issue of the "Revue des Deux Mondes," the drastic plan suggested by the Japanese for the reconstruction of the Chinese army provides for 480,000 men. In two years, he thinks, the Chinese will be able to put an army of a hundred thousand soldiers into the field. The powerful Yuan-Shi-Kai, Viceroy of the metropolitan province of Chili, already has thirty thousand men, well armed and drilled—Japanese fashion.

In the domain of education, Japan's success in the war three years previous was the great force behind the Chinese Emperor's attempted reforms in 1898. The following year, Viceroy Chang-Chi-Tung at Hankau published his book, which was translated into English under the title "China's Only Hope"—education. Now, as education of the kind he wanted could not be had in China, he sent his young men to Japan. The success of those students had much to do with the epoch-making reform promulgated in 1902, by which certain worthy young Chinese were to be sent to Japan for study, while throughout China pri-

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mary, secondary, and university grades of teaching were to be established. As in the schools the lack was teachers, not students, it is significant that for the normal schools, since established, all the foreign teachers are Japanese, while for the provincial colleges (the reorganization of which has been carried out by the Japanese) the only foreign languages taught are Japanese and English. A still more recent and startling change was also inspired by the Japanese. By imperial edict the system of literary examination has now been abolished. For centuries public offices of all grades have been filled by those who showed no familiarity with the duties of the positions to which they aspired, but simply knowledge of the Chinese classics and ability to write abstruse essays. The influence behind this change was that of the several thousand young men who, since 1902, had been sent by the Chinese Government at its expense for three years to the military, mining, railway engineering, and law schools in Japan. As was expected, the year 1905, completing the end of the course for those first sent, is also the date of the opening to them of their Government's civil service.

Another Chinese reform, unmentioned by M. Pinon, and also inspired by the Japanese, is that of remodeling the old judiciary and adding thereto a new judiciary, decided upon a year ago. It is not surprising, therefore, that out of the enormous total of about five thousand Chinese students in Japan (not twenty-five hundred, as stated by M. Pinon) nearly seven hundred are now members of the Law School of the Imperial University at Tokyo, preparing to form the future judiciary of China. The Government of that country is naturally desirous of following Japan's example in its self-emancipation from foreign tutelage and exterritoriality, and, by establishing a proper and competent judiciary, in bringing all foreign subjects domiciled and doing business in China under the operation of the Chinese law.

Now, in the army, education, the judiciary, China apparently and paradoxically wants to remain herself, while at the same time she wants to become modern. Her desire to take lessons of Japan in becoming modern is, proximately, because Japan can present modernity in an assimilable form and so as not to betray its real American and European origin. But, ultimately, China's desire to learn modernity is probably not because she wants to Occidentalize the Flowery Kingdom; on the contrary, she may wish to learn how to fight foreigners with their own weapons, so as finally to eliminate them from co-operating in China's development. Nor is this alarming. It may mean, in the long run, just that praiseworthy spirit of genuine nationalism—no recrudescence of bigotry—which Mr. Hay hoped to evoke. But, whatever the motive, what a change from a decade ago, when China opposed every possible foreign enterprise! To-day she goes to school to the foreigner. America and England could not have wrought so quick a change. Only Japan could, because of (1) the proximity of her geographical position, emphasized in 1895 by the transfer to her of Formosa and the Pescadores; (2) the racial sympathy between the Chinese and Japanese and the marvelous adaptability of the latter; (3) the military victories of 1895 and especially of 1904–5, showing, as the Chinese now see, the superiority of mixing Oriental with Occidental methods; (4) the Mikado's semi-divine position, corresponding to that of the Chinese Emperor; (5) the Japanese mixture of Shinto, Buddhist, and Christian philosophies, not unsympathetic to Chinese Confucianists.

If, as M. Pinon thinks, all the Japanese reforms in China only lead to ultimate political domination, then truly the times are ripe for the Emperor William to paint another picture prophesying the Yellow Peril, and with the same legend: "Nations of Europe, guard your holiest treasures." That this acute imperial observer has not been unmindful of the situation may be gathered from his remark to an American visitor the other day that "Japan indirectly owns China."

So she does—but, in the ultimate analysis, morally rather than materially. For the main thing in Japan's opportunity (so far, so splendidly used) is not China's desire, but Japan's spirit. China's desire

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is the desire of a half-awakened child. There is little if any evidence that Japan's spirit, struggling through economic, military, educational penetration, is only, as M. Pinon thinks, the spirit which believes that bigness and force pay best. There is little if any evidence that behind Japan's soldierly *samurai* spirit she masks the predatory. Hitherto that *samurai* spirit has meant wisdom, discipline, Spartan-like endurance. By it she has gained not only her military victories but also her welcome place among the nations. She is not likely to imperil that place by misuse of opportunity. On the other hand, she is likely, we believe, to continue to impress the world with what she calls her national *bushido* spirit—straightforwardness, gentleness, firmness, chivalry.

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Liberty of Prophesying

The question so vigorously discussed on another page by Dr. Edward Abbott and Dr. Algernon S. Crapsey, both clergymen of the Episcopal Church, interests us on account of its practical aspects. There are scores of clergymen to-day in every Christian denomination who are perplexed by this question. They are men of the highest honor, and resent imputations upon their integrity. They neither wish to remain in a communion where they are not wanted, nor to leave a communion to which by long association and by spiritual affinity they are devotedly attached. They no longer hold the theological views of their youth. They no longer hold those of the youth of their Church. Has their Church experienced the same intellectual development as themselves? Then they wish to remain. Does it continue to insist upon doctrines which they have modified? Then they wish to withdraw. They are unwilling to remain in the Church if they disbelieve doctrines on which it insists. They are equally unwilling to impute to the Church beliefs which it has modified and a dogmatism which it would disown. Many a minister in this perplexity remains in the Church and keeps silent upon the uncertain doctrines; others shift from one Church to another in a not always successful endeavor to find in a new pulpit the rest of a larger freedom. And many young men are kept out of the ministry altogether by the dread of encountering this embarrassment.

The perplexed minister cannot find an answer to this question by recurring to the creed of the Church. For faith is vital, mobile, constantly changing; creeds are unchanging, save as a new meaning is put by use into old words. The Lord's Prayer is not the same to a little child that it is to the mother taught by years of life's experiences the meaning of forgiveness, temptation, deliverance. "I believe in the resurrection of the body" does not suggest the same thought to the believer in the twentieth century that it suggested to believers in the first century. The creed is like a garment. The body undergoes changes every day; the same garment is worn for months, perhaps for years. Creeds are not scientifically definite, and cannot be; for language is inadequate to express spiritual truth. What is meant by "I believe . . . in the forgiveness of sins"? Only the experience of the believer can answer that question, and the experiences of forgiveness are far from identical. Creeds are not always unambiguous, and not always intended to be unambiguous. Our readers will perhaps remember Lord Macaulay's characterization of the Thirty-nine Articles of the English Church. To-day it is hotly disputed by distinguished scholars in her communion whether she is Calvinistic or Arminian, Catholic or Protestant. Dr. Edward Abbott cites the deacon's affirmation, in the service of ordination, of his unfeigned belief in "all the Canonical Scriptures of Old and New Testaments." What does this mean? That they are all equally infallible and inerrant? Few if any scholars in that Church now hold that opinion. That the general teaching of those Scriptures concerning God and his relation to nature and to man, and man and his duties toward God and his fellow-men, is to be accepted and taught? No man who disbelieved that would desire to remain a priest in that Church.

Under these conditions we can see no peace or power for the Church of

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Christ except in the frank and full acceptance of that principle of toleration so admirably stated by Jeremy Taylor in his "Liberty of Prophesying:"

> In this world we believe in part and prophesy in part, and this imperfection shall never be done away till we be transplanted to a more glorious state. Either, then, we must throw our chances and get truth by accident or predestination, or else we must lie safe in a mutual toleration and private liberty of persuasion, unless some other anchor can be thought upon where we may fasten our floating vessels and ride safely.

Dr. Crapsey thinks, apparently, that the two commandments of the law—the Lord's Prayer and the five laws of righteousness in the Sermon on the Mount—constitute the basic truths of Christianity. The Outlook has already said that, in its judgment, the Parable of the Prodigal Son is a much better epitome of Christianity. But that difference furnishes no reason why men of these different opinions should not remain in the same Church, and one preach the five laws of righteousness and the other the Parable of the Prodigal Son.

In our judgment, those who direct and control the affairs of a Christian Church should direct and control them in the spirit of the extract above given from Jeremy Taylor; and those who are in any doubt of their right in the Church of their earlier faith should assume that this spirit animates the Church, and should count themselves safe alike from the criticism of others and from the reproaches of their own conscience in their "mutual toleration and private liberty of persuasion." It is time enough for any minister who doubts whether he belongs in the Church to conclude that his more traditional or more orthodox associates do not believe in this toleration and liberty when they attempt to deny it to him. Until they do so, he should assume it as the recognized spirit of the Church, and alike exercise it toward others and expect that it will be exercised toward himself.

Impressions of a Careless Traveler

AN enthusiastic friend of mine says that the entire State of Maine ought to be purchased by the Federal Government and set apart for a National park. I suppose he would allow some reservations for permanent inhabitants—such as Portland, Lewiston, and Bangor—and permanent land leases on conditions regulating the shooting, fishing, and timber-cutting. Certainly the State has some great advantages for such a National park without being bought by the Government and dedicated to the public. Its woods still abound with game, its lakes and streams with perch, pickerel, and trout. Its innumerable lakes—ponds the modest inhabitants call them—furnish ideal camping spots. Its villages, even as one sees them from a railroad train, charm by the attractiveness of their freshly painted houses, the natural untrimmed lawns which surround them, and the splendid trees which shade them. Only old England surpasses these villages in the beauty and freshness of the flowers which seem to grow spontaneously. And though the roads are not inviting to automobilists, and are frequently stony, often dusty, and sometimes muddy—in short, are more like lanes than highways—they furnish an infinite variety of scenic beauty to both rider and driver.

But to me the peculiar charm of Maine is its coast. I do not believe that there are more attractive cruising waters in the world than those along the coast of Maine. I have cruised in Long Island Sound from Stamford to Cape Cod; I have a little personal acquaintance with the romantic coast of Scotland and the blue waters and the picturesque shores of the Mediterranean; and I have the measure of familiarity which three or four experiences of cruising could give me with the coast of Maine from Portland on the west to Grindstone Neck and Winter Harbor on Frenchman's Bay on the east. For the benefit of those whose local geographical knowledge is limited, it is proper to add parenthetically that Grindstone Neck and Winter Harbor are

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the eastern boundary of Frenchman's Bay—the bay upon which the cottages at Bar Harbor look out from their hillside. Probably to the greater number of summer visitors, who camp, or cottage, or board at some of the numerous hotels, the chiefest attraction of Maine is its summer climate. The nights are always cool—sometimes, to lovers of a warm climate, like myself, too cool. The days are generally comfortably warm, but rarely, very rarely, uncomfortably hot. To those who want a stimulant, not a sedative, no climate could be better than the admixture of mountain and sea air which in different proportions offers its invigorating tonic to the summer sojourner along this coast. The varieties are very considerable. Captain White tells me that in winter it is eight degrees warmer on Long Island, the outermost island south of Bar Harbor, than it is at Mount Desert; and comparing the softened air of Fox Island Thoroughfare with the frosty air of Camden or Mount Desert in August, I can well believe him. Personally, when the strenuous work of the busy winter comes to its close, I want for a time a sedative, not a stimulant, so I rarely go to the coast of Maine before August. But those who go earlier find the invigoration that they want in simply being and breathing. They sit upon the hotel piazzas and read and smoke, or sew and gossip, according to their sex; or they ride or drive or follow some of the numerous trails in the splendid woods; or they climb the miniature mountains; or they work off their superfluous energies in golf or tennis; or perhaps they take a rod and bring home trout for supper, or go out with a fisherman into the bay for cod or haddock. One friend tells me that when the father and sons have brought home no fish the day before, the butler steps out of the front door on the rocks and in the early morning catches the family breakfast.

But only they who enjoy the sea get the full benefit of the coast of Maine, and they are evidently in a minority. True, there are many scores who go out sailing for an afternoon, an experience which is related to cruising much as riding round and round on a tan-bark circle in a riding academy is to real horseback-riding in the open country in a riding trip of a week. There are two forms of cruise. I suppose the millionaire who fits out an ocean steamer and follows the courses which the regular steamers mark out for him thinks he is cruising. I do not. He is merely traveling in a private steamboat. But a rich man, though not a millionaire, may own a yacht, with its cabin and its stateroom, its sailing-master and its seamen, its steward and its cook, and go in the water highways, and anchor where the big boats anchor and the big hotels are, and live as luxuriously on the sea as on the land. He can have a very good time even so; I know, for I have tried it. And it is probably as near the perfect thing as the rich and luxurious can get. But it is not the perfect thing. For that one must hire a fishing-sloop, with a moderate-sized cabin and a good-sized cockpit; he must get a skipper who knows the waters and can run into any one of the scores of little harbors that yachts and their sailing-masters know nothing of; he must either get a skipper who can cook or he must be able to cook for himself; he must live on fish, lobsters, and fresh eggs, eked out with a moderate supply of canned vegetables and canned soups, fresh vegetables being difficult to procure; he must have charts of the waters, and enjoy "picking up" the buoys, or even working his way into little-known harbors that are not buoyed out at all; and he must, above all, be a man with human interests and a liking for all sorts and conditions of men. The cruise that stands out most clearly in my recollection was one in which the cabin was always stuffy, and smoky if the wind blew in the wrong direction when the skipper was cooking the dinner, so that we slept on the deck with a sailcloth roof rigged over the boom. The walk in the evening after the day's sail was ended, through the pasture to the nearest farm-house for a pail of fresh milk and a ten-minutes' gossip with the house-mother, who had not seen a strange face perhaps for weeks; the chat with the fisherman's or lobsterman's boy who sculled out to our boat to see who we were and to make a call on the

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strangers; the row in the harbor after supper under the starlight; the yarns the skipper reeled off to us over our simple supper of bread and butter, fresh lobster, and cocoa—yarns which he told so often that he knew as little as we how much was history and how much fiction—these are the elements that make up a real cruise. The air, the sleep, the diet, the appetite, the exercise, the scenery, and, above all, the men and women, genuine, sincere, simple-hearted, shrewd minded, hospitable-souled, combine to make a whole which neither the novelist nor the dramatist can equal. "Captain Eri" is an interesting story; but reading it cannot be compared to living with Captain Eri for a week.

These islands are lacking in those institutions on which we are apt to depend for the nurturing of our higher life. There are no libraries, no book-stores, and the cheap books which find their way hither are not nutritive. The schools generally are in session for short terms and with constantly changing teachers. There is no instruction in hygiene or home-building or home culture. There is quite generally a church building, but the services are spasmodic, and the preachers not always instructive; sometimes they are sectarians more desirous to proselyte than to instruct or inspire. Two years ago, cruising among these islands, I said to my companion, "I should like to hire a launch, have an advance agent to make arrangements, and then go on a missionary cruise along this coast, preaching or lecturing every night, and doing what little I could in personal conferences by day." This year I found that what I had idly dreamed some one else had practically realized. The two McDonald brothers, one settled at Seal Harbor, the other at Bar Harbor, both on Mount Desert Island, have created a Maine Coast Missionary Society. They are both Congregationalists, but the Society is undenominational, the various Protestant denominations being represented on the committee. That they have better business standing than some ministers is evidenced by the fact that a local bank has loaned them $550 on their joint note; with this loan they have bought a sloop with an auxiliary motor. From local collections they have raised money enough to start a local missionary on his coast tour. I joined him and Mr. A. P. McDonald for a cruise of two days and two nights.

Captain H. E. White is one of those men whom you often meet in New England and rarely anywhere else. He can build a house, make a boat, repair an engine, drive and care for a horse, milk a cow, cook a dinner, navigate a ship, preach a sermon, organize a Sunday-school—and what else I know not. On our trip we landed at four in the afternoon on an outlying island, and walked through the village inviting the people to the service. The key of the church was apparently in the pocket of a skipper who had gone to Bar Harbor, but Captain White had no fear but that some one had a key or could pick the lock; and his confidence was justified by the result. Finding two women whose husbands were off fishing and whose cows had strayed away, he went after the cows, brought them home, did some of the milking, and got back to his sloop in time for a hasty supper: result—the women could come to service. The little church was full, with a large proportion of men, among them half a dozen sailors from a mackerel-fishing schooner anchored in the harbor. The pathetic story which a lobster fisherman told us next morning of his dyspepsia, and his experience with all sorts of drugs, lent emphasis to Mr. McDonald's desire to get a woman graduate of some domestic science school to go there next summer and give some lessons in cooking and hygiene. These ministers, whose salaries are very small, ought not to be left to pay for that sloop. They have issued five hundred and fifty shares of stock at one dollar each. Two hundred shares have been taken. If any of my readers want some stock which pays no dividends and involves no responsibilities, they can get some by sending their money either to the Rev. A. P. McDonald, Seal Harbor, or the Rev. A. M. McDonald, Bar Harbor, Maine. I think it is pretty good stock to have.

L. A.

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THE STORY OF PORT ARTHUR[1]

By George Kennan

Special Correspondent of The Outlook in the Far East

XII.—The Surrender of Port Arthur

Mr. Kennan's "Story of Port Author," here concluded, will be followed immediately by a series of three articles on "Korea and Its Future." These articles are the result of a study of Korea made the past summer by Mr. Kennan, and will discuss the personality of the Emperor of Korea, the national character of the people, and Japan's administrative methods in Korea. Japan is now the predominant power in that country, and the world is watching her action with keen interest. Mr. Kennan finds not a little to criticise in the Japanese course in Korea, and does not hesitate to point out the mistakes made by the Japanese Government. Speaking of the divergence of opinion as to affairs in Korea, Mr. Kennan in a private letter says: "I have found already a missionary view, a diplomatic view, a Japanese view, a liberal Korean view, a conservative Korean view, a foreign commercial view, and two or three others. . . . A more unpromising, not to say hopeless, people to make anything of I have never yet seen. . . . If the Japanese succeed in making an honest, self-respecting, half-civilized people out of them in a generation, I should feel as much respect for their administrative ability as I now have for their military capacity." The Korean series will in turn be followed by a series of articles from China, where Mr. Kennan will spend some months in study and observation. The indications are that Eastern problems will largely center in China in the near future, and Americans have a deep interest in more ways than one in these problems and in the future of China.—THE EDITORS.

WHEN, in the latter part of November, 1904, it became evident that Admiral Rojestvensky was making a serious attempt to reach the Far Eastern waters with the Baltic Fleet, the Japanese Government saw at once that the destruction of the Russian war-ships in the harbor of Port Arthur was a matter of immediate and urgent necessity. So long as those ships remained afloat and in seaworthy condition, Admiral Togo would be tied to blockading duty; and it was extremely important not only that he should be liberated, but that he should be set free in time to dock and clean his ships, make necessary repairs, and put his fleet in the highest possible state of efficiency before he should be compelled to fight a decisive battle for command of the sea. The coming of the Russian "armada" made the battle-ships and cruisers in Port Arthur more important than the fortress itself, and to these vessels, therefore, the Japanese turned their attention. It was theoretically possible to destroy them in two different ways. General Nogi might take the city by assault and then sink the squadron, or drive it out, by gunfire from the forts, or, on the other hand, he might destroy it by long-range bombardment, leaving the city and the forts to be taken later by sap and mine. The latter course would be the easier one, but, unfortunately, the Japanese were not in possession of any point from which they could see the ships at which they were firing, and consequently they could not be certain that their shells and armor-piercing projectiles were producing the desired effect. The larger Russian ships were all lying at anchor in or near the small basin known as the Eastern Harbor, where they were hidden from Japanese observation by the intervening hill of Peyushan, and although it was possible to reach them by high-angle fire, it was not possible to make sure of their complete destruction.

On the Japanese right flank, about three miles and a half from the old town of Port Arthur, there was a high, isolated, double peak known as 203-Meter Hill,

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from which an observer might look behind Peyushan and see the Russian ships in any position that it would be possible for them to take. This peak, however, was held by the Russians in great force, and, under the skillful direction of General Smirnoff, it had been so strongly fortified with bomb-proof chambers, steel-roofed trenches, and wire entanglements that it was almost as formidable as a permanent fort. If this hill could be captured, and used as an observation post, the destruction of the ships in the harbor might be made easy and certain; but it had been assaulted several times without success, and it probably could not be taken without a great sacrifice of life.

When, late in November, General Nogi received from the home Government, or from the Emperor in person, an intimation that, in view of the approach of Admiral Rojesvensky, it was time to make an end of the Port Arthur ships, he decided to assault again the forts of the eastern sector, and, if possible, break through the line and capture the city. The attack was made on the 26th of November, and, as I have shown in an article entitled "Saps, Mines, and Assaults," it completely failed. The Japanese took Sungshushan and Ehrlungshan —the strongest forts east of the railway— but they were unable to hold them under the tremendous concentrated fire of the other Russian forts and batteries, and before dark that afternoon they were driven out with great loss. At 9 P.M. General Nakamura, at the head of two thousand picked men, made a last, desperate attempt to retrieve, in part, the fortune of the day, by capturing the old fort of Sungshushan on the direct Port Arthur road; but after receiving a severe wound and losing a large part of his force, he was compelled to retire to the trenches of the Fifth Division. Fighting continued at intervals throughout the night, but the Japanese made no progress, and when day broke, on the morning of the 27th, General Nogi, who had spent twenty-four hours, without sleep, on a hill overlooking the valley, became convinced that the city could not be taken by assault at that time. He therefore determined to shift the point of attack to the right wing and storm 203-Meter Hill. In the general plan of the siege this hill had no particular importance, for the reason that it was distant three miles and a half from the city and was a mere outwork in the main line of defense. It had great value, however, as a place of observation, and, until the Japanese should obtain possession of it, they could not direct their long-range fire accurately against the ships, nor make sure that the latter were so completely disabled as to be practically useless.

When, on the 28th of November, the order was given to assault 203-Meter Hill, and to take it at any cost, the Japanese probably did not realize that they were entering upon the bloodiest and most desperate engagement of the whole siege,[1] but such it proved to be. The fight lasted eight days, and in the course of that time the crest of the hill was stormed by the Japanese and recaptured by the Russians three or four times in succession. The Japanese, in the intervals between their attacks, subjected the hill to furious bombardment, and in a single day and night threw seventeen hundred large-caliber projectiles into an area comprising less than ten acres. Under this storm of shot and shell the Russians clung to their shattered trenches and earthworks with desperate tenacity, and it was not until the 5th of December that the Japanese finally succeeded in establishing themselves securely on the crest of the hill. No statement of their loss has ever been made, but one of General Nogi's staff officers told me that in the assaults between November 26 and December 2 they lost, in killed and wounded, about ten thousand men, and it seems probable that this number was increased to at least twelve thousand as a result of the fighting between December 2 and December 5. The hill was captured at last, but it may well be doubted whether in the whole history of warfare a mere observation post was ever bought at so high a price. With this lookout in their possession, however, the Japanese soon disposed of the Port

[1] Port Arthur was completely invested in July, but siege operations did not begin until after the August assaults—probably about September 1.

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Arthur fleet. Having extended their wires to the summit of the hill, they were able to direct by telephone the fire of their howitzer batteries, and in the course of the next five days they sunk four battle-ships, two cruisers, one gunboat, and a number of other vessels, and forced the only remaining battle-ship, the Sevastopol, to take refuge outside the harbor, where she was eventually sunk by torpedo-boats. Admiral Togo was informed by wireless telegraphy of the destruction of the Russian ships, but, not daring to take the testimony of others in a matter of such importance, he landed in a small boat, climbed 203-Meter Hill, and, with the aid of a powerful glass, satisfied himself that the Port Arthur fleet was no longer in existence. Every vessel of any importance was resting on the bottom of the harbor, and the tide was ebbing and flowing through the shattered hulls of all. With the destruction of the Russian ships ended what may be called the 203-Meter Hill episode. It had no bearing whatever upon the fall of Port Arthur, and was virtually a side issue, forced upon General Nogi by the coming of the Baltic Fleet.

As soon as the ships had been disposed of, the Japanese were at liberty to prosecute the siege in accordance with the original plan, and, turning their attention once more to the part of the Russian line which lay east of the railway, they began digging tunnels under the walls of Sungshushan, Ehrlungshan, and the North Fort of Keekwan. The resistance offered by the Russians was comparatively feeble, and on the 18th of December General Nogi's engineers exploded a series of mines under the escarp of the fort last named and made a breach in the parapet wide enough to admit a storming party. The Japanese in the advanced parallels at once rushed into the gap and tried to carry the fort by assault, but, encountering a formidable wire entanglement inside the inclosure, they were brought to a stand, and were finally driven out by the fire of machine guns which the garrison had placed behind a strong traversing wall of sand-bags. At seven o'clock in the evening General Samajima, dressed in a new uniform and wearing all his crosses and medals in expectation of death, went to the front and took command of the troops in person. Another assault was then made, and, after a desperate struggle which lasted more than four hours and cost the Japanese five hundred and forty-three officers and men, the Russians were finally expelled and the remnant of the assaulting column took possession of the fort. It was found to contain nine rapid-fire guns, four Maxims, more than a thousand artillery shells, and sixteen thousand rounds of ammunition for machine guns and rifles.

As the capture of 203-Meter Hill was the first decisive victory won by the Japanese in the course of the siege, so North Keekwan was the first of the permanent forts that they succeeded in taking and holding. They had made three general assaults without breaking through the enemy's line, and had spent three months and a half in digging, sapping, storming outworks, and laying mines; but at last they were beginning to gather the fruits of their long and patient labor. Just a week after the capture of North Keekwan, the engineers and sappers of the Ninth Division completed the excavation of five tunnels under the parapet of Ehrlungshan, and loaded them with immense charges of dynamite. Three days later these subterranean mines were fired simultaneously by electricity, and the tremendous explosion that ensued filled the moat with débris and completely shattered the front wall. As soon as the smoke cleared away, the Japanese charged into the breach; but they were immediately checked by a destructive fire from machine guns which the garrison had placed behind a wall of sand-bags on the gorge of the fort. Finding it impossible to occupy the inclosure in the face of this fire, the Japanese telephoned their batteries on the other side of the valley to support them by means of a bombardment, and in a few moments the howitzers of the Ninth Division began throwing shells into the rear of the fort, over the heads of the assaulting column. This so demoralized the Russian gunners that they were unable to prevent the Japanese from obtaining a foothold and intrenching themselves behind sand-

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bags inside the inclosure. This practically determined the result of the engagement. The garrison fought gallantly, and held the rear of the fort for nine hours after the assaulting column entered the breach in the front parapet, but they were finally driven out, and at half-past seven o'clock in the evening the Japanese were in full possession.

Of the three permanent forts in the main line of the Japanese attack only one remained untaken, and that one was destined to fall soon. On the last day of 1904 the sappers and engineers of the First Division fired a series of mines that they had laid in tunnels under the fort of Sungshushan. The explosion killed one hundred and fifty of the garrison outright, buried one hundred and sixty more in the ruins of a bomb-proof chamber, and so breached and shattered the front parapet that a storming party was able to force an entrance and take complete possession of the place in less than an hour. The close of the year, therefore, and the end of the fourth month of the siege, found the Japanese in possession of all the Russian forts in the main line of defense from Sungshushan to East Keekwan—a distance of about a mile and a half. Between the besiegers and the city of Port Arthur there lay only the Chinese wall, two recently constructed earthworks known as H Fort and the New Fort of Panlungshan, and the fortified hill of Wangtai.

There was still time for the Russians to concentrate their whole force on the naturally strong hill of Wangtai and to make there a last stand in defense of the city; but they were apparently so disheartened and demoralized by the loss of Sungshushan and Ehrlungshan that they were wholly incapable of rational thought or action. So far as I have been able to ascertain, they made no attempt during the night of the 31st to reinforce the slender garrisons of H Fort and the New Fort of Panlungshan, nor did they try to strengthen the line of the Chinese wall, which the Japanese would have held against them for a fortnight. They simply let things drift, and were no better prepared to resist a further Japanese advance on the morning of the 1st than they had been the night before. Taking advantage of their adversaries' irresolution and inaction, the besiegers made a breach in the Chinese wall soon after daybreak; stormed H Fort and the New Fort of Panlungshan at seven o'clock; attacked Wangtai at nine; and, under cover of a heavy artillery fire, captured it between three and four o'clock in the afternoon. The feebleness of the resistance offered by the Russians may be inferred from the fact that, with twenty-five thousand able-bodied men in the fortress as a whole, they left only twenty-four dead in the Wangtai intrenchments when they abandoned them and fled to the city.

Seeing that the Japanese were in a position from which they could look directly down into the Port Arthur streets, General Stoessel, without calling a council of his general officers, decided to surrender, and soon after four o'clock in the afternoon he sent a flag of truce to the Japanese lines in the Shuishi valley with the following note to General Nogi:

Your Excellency:

Judging from the general situation within the area of fighting, I think that further resistance is needless. In order, therefore, to avoid further loss of life, I ask you to negotiate for the terms of surrender. Should you accept my proposal, you will appoint a commissioner in order to discuss the terms and process of surrender and fix a place of meeting between your commissioner and ours. I avail myself of this opportunity to express my highest consideration. STOESSEL.

The Russian proposal was accepted, commissioners were appointed, and the articles of capitulation were signed at 9:45 P.M. on the 2d of January. There has been a great deal of discussion and controversy with regard to the question whether the surrender of Port Arthur was necessary and justifiable or not. Dr. Morrison, of the London "Times," who visited the city and the fortifications immediately after the capitulation, declares that "no more discreditable surrender has been recorded in history," while my associate, Mr. Curtis, who was also on the ground and who had seen most of the siege, is of opinion that the Russians were forced to capitulate, and that even if they had continued to resist they could not possibly have held the city for a longer period than four or five

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days. As I was compelled by illness to return to Japan in December, and did not see the last act in the great drama of the siege, I am unable to express an opinion based on personal observation; but I am familiar with the topography of the country, and, in the light of the information that is now accessible, it is not difficult to form a trustworthy judgment with regard to the merits of the case.

Inasmuch as General Stoessel has expressly declared that he surrendered "without consulting anybody," and that he assumes all responsibility,[1] it is only fair to hear first what he has to say in his own defense. In an official report to the Czar bearing the dates December 28 and December 29 (just before the surrender) he made the following statements: "The position of the fortress is becoming very painful. Our principal enemies are scurvy and the eleven-inch shells. *Only a few persons remain unattacked by the scurvy*, which mows down men and spreads despite all possible measures. The passive endurance of the enemy's eleven-inch gun bombardment, *the impossibility of reply for want of ammunition*, the outbreak of scurvy, the loss of officers—all these have caused a daily diminution of defense. . . . *Many companies are commanded by ensigns, each company averaging about sixty men. . . . Hardly any ammunition is left.* I shall take measures to prevent carnage in the streets. The scurvy is weakening the garrison sensibly. Now, ten thousand men are under arms; *they are all ill.* . . . We beg herewith your Majesty's pardon. We have done all that human power can do. I beseech your Majesty to take pity on us and sympathize with our position."

On the 19th of January the General said to a reporter of the "North China Daily News," at Shanghai, that "he could have held out only for three or four days, at the outside, if he had not surrendered when he did. With regard to the large supplies of shells found inside the fortress by the Japanese, he stated that these were only for the guns of small caliber. *The large guns had only a few rounds apiece left, and the small-arm ammunition was barely sufficient to ward off one Japanese attack.*"

At Aden, on his way home, the General said to a special correspondent of the Paris "Matin:" "The town could, at the outside, have held out four days longer. *The ammunition that could be used, and the provisions, were almost entirely exhausted.* It is true that there remained six thousand common shells and a few hundred high-explosive shells, and two million cartridges—that is to say, next to nothing against the eleven-inch guns of the Japanese. As to the men I had left, they mustered only three thousand, suffering from scurvy, stricken with illness and fever, obliged to fight sitting or lying down in the trenches, where the dead could no longer be picked up. Eighteen thousand men were in the hospitals. The remainder were in their graves. *For several months my men had two hundred grammes of horse-meat a week. That was all their food, and to cook it we were obliged to give them machine-grease.*" When General Stoessel arrived in Moscow, a reception was given to him by the municipality, and in reply to the welcoming address of the Mayor he said: "It was not our fault that Port Arthur had to fall. We resisted as long as possible. As early as October the Japanese held us fast, having taken all the important forts over an area of four kilometers. They were in a position to force an entrance into the fortress at any moment, and with a heart full of grief I was obliged to surrender Port Arthur, since in any case the enemy would have taken it at the first assault. . . . *We had 317 officers killed out of 680, and all were wounded—some as many as eight times.* Out of 17,000 men, only 4,000, including the wounded, were left. *We could hold out no longer, for want of food and ammunition.*"[1]

If the statements made in the extracts above quoted are true, there can be no doubt whatever that the surrender of Port Arthur was at least excusable. When the commander of a fortress has an available force of only three or four thousand men, all of whom are sick; when he has little or no food, and is

[1] Interview at Aden with the special correspondent of the Paris "Matin."

[1] The italics are mine.

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unable to return the enemy's fire for want of ammunition, he cannot be severely blamed if he decides to capitulate. But does General Stoessel tell the truth—or anything like the truth?

One of the most noteworthy characteristics of the Japanese in time of war is the painstaking accuracy with which they tabulate and enumerate the things that fall into their hands on the battle-field, or in a captured fort. As soon as they were able to do so, they made a full classified invoice of the food, guns, and ammunition that they found in Port Arthur, and a complete list of the able-bodied prisoners who surrendered. By comparing invoice and list with General Stoessel's statements we may see how much credence should be given to the latter, and may form something like an accurate idea of the real state of affairs in Port Arthur when the capitulation agreement was signed.

Take, first, the number of able-bodied combatants. In his official report to the Czar, General Stoessel declared that, at the time of the surrender, his companies had been reduced to an average of sixty men each, and that, on account of the scarcity of unwounded officers, many of these companies were commanded by ensigns. In his speech at Moscow he said, "We had 317 officers killed out of 680, and all were wounded." General Nogi, however, reports that he took as prisoners seventeen generals and thirteen hundred and six other officers who were neither wounded nor sick. This number would have given four officers to every company, or one officer to every fifteen men. General Stoessel says, furthermore, that his garrison had been reduced from 17,000 to 4,000, the latter number including wounded. General Nogi's records show that he captured 25,011 men of the rank and file who were neither sick nor wounded, and whose physical condition was such that, soon after the surrender, they marched fifteen miles from the fortress to the railway station of Choreishi.[1]

But perhaps General Stoessel came nearer the truth in the matter of food. In every report and every statement that he made, from Port Arthur to Moscow, he declared that his "provisions were almost entirely exhausted," that "only a few persons remained unattacked by scurvy," that his men had nothing to eat except horse-flesh and machine-grease, and that he "could hold out no longer for want of food." General Nogi reports that he found in the fortress 690,000 rations of flour, 666,000 rations of hard-bread, 80,000 rations of split barley, 175,000 rations of tinned beef, 11,200 rations of corn meal, 1,125 rations of rice, 33,000 pounds of sugar, 583,000 pounds of salt, and horse-fodder for fifty-six days. Adding these food supplies together, we find that the fortress contained provisions enough to last an army of 41,000 men thirty-nine days, without any reduction of the normal ration. Taking into consideration the fact that the 15,000 sick and wounded men probably would not eat half their allowance, there was food enough on hand to last them and the 25,000 able-bodied combatants at least two months.

But 25,000 men, even though they be able-bodied and well fed, cannot fight without ammunition; and General Stoessel expressly said, in his last report to the Czar, in his interviews at Shanghai and Aden, and in his speech at Moscow, that he "could not reply to the enemy's fire for want of ammunition," that his "ammunition was almost entirely exhausted," and that "the large guns had only a few rounds apiece left." General Nogi reports that he found in the fortress 4,773 rounds of ammunition for cannon of six-inch caliber and upward, 62,640 rounds for guns of three to six-inch caliber, and 138,821 rounds for quick-firers, small field-pieces, and Maxims. This supply would have enabled the Russian artillery to fire about 3,500 rounds a day for a period of two months. Of small-arm ammunition General Stoessel says he had "barely enough to ward off one Japanese attack." General Nogi's officers, however, found 5,436,240 rounds, or enough for two months' consumption at the rate of 90,000 rounds per day. The fortress also contained thirty-three tons of gunpowder, 1,588 explosives (mines, grenades, etc.), and "an enor-

[1] This number includes able-bodied sailors and marines from the ships, but does not include non-combatants, many of whom volunteered, or were compelled to render military service.

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mous amount of material and appliances intended for use in the further strengthening of the forts." The number of cannon remaining in a state of efficiency was five hundred and twenty-eight.

The extraordinary discrepancy between General Stoessel's statements and General Nogi's reports is susceptible of two explanations. It may be supposed that the Russian commander was grossly ignorant of all the essential facts of the situation, or, on the other hand, it may be assumed that he knew the facts, but consciously and deliberately misrepresented them in order to excuse his own weakness and incompetence. I do not know which of these suppositions is true; but either of them is fatal to General Stoessel's reputation as an officer, and the second one is ruinous to his character as a man. Wherever the truth may lie, so far as he personally is concerned, it is reasonably certain that Port Arthur might have been held for another month—possibly two months. It had a garrison of seventeen generals, thirteen hundred other officers, and twenty-five thousand able-bodied men, and its supply of food and ammunition, if used carefully and judiciously, would have lasted at least sixty days. I am unable, however, to agree with Dr. Morrison and most of the other correspondents in regarding the surrender itself as unnecessary and discreditable. After the Japanese had obtained possession of Wangtai Hill, I do not think that it would have been possible for the garrison to drive them back, or to keep them out of the city. It would have been almost as difficult to do so as to defend the city of Washington with twenty-five thousand men, after a hostile and victorious army of seventy-five thousand had captured the northern hills from Fourteenth Street to Kalorama Heights. The Japanese might have accomplished such a task, but for the cowed, dispirited, and badly led Russians it was an impossibility. The weakness, therefore, was not in the act of surrender; it was in the management of the defense during the last two months of the siege. The situation, when General Stoessel surrendered, was hopeless; but he should not have allowed it to become hopeless.

The main fight for the defense of Port Arthur ought to have been made on and after the 30th of October, when the Japanese first obtained a foothold on the edges of the moats. They were then in very weak force, and they should have been dislodged at all hazards and at any cost. A capable and prudent commander, with twenty-five or thirty thousand available men, five hundred guns, and an abundant supply of ammunition, never would have permitted an active and resourceful enemy thoroughly to establish and intrench himself in positions from which tunnels could easily be carried under the forts. He would have tried, at least, to drive the assailants back, and never would have ceased to contest that ground while he had a soldier that could fight and dig, and guns that could be fired. He might have lost thousands of men, and might have been overwhelmed at last, but he would not have been forced to surrender in January, and his defeat would not have been attended with disgrace. It ought to have been apparent to General Stoessel that if he allowed the Japanese to hold the counterscarps of the moats, and drive tunnels under the parapets of the forts, the capture of the latter would inevitably follow; but on the days when I went to the front, or watched the operations from 229-Meter Hill, he was doing little or nothing, and seemed to regard General Nogi's sapping and mining operations with indifference. He had plenty of ammunition and plenty of men, and yet he allowed the Japanese to work unmolested for hours and days at a time, in open pits and trenches, less than a hundred feet from the parapets of his strongest forts. His sorties and counter-attacks were not made when they ought to have been, and were seldom pushed home; his countermining was on a very small scale; and his bombardment of the advanced Japanese positions was weak, desultory, and ineffective. The place to defend Port Arthur was outside the moats of Sungshushan, Ehrlungshan, and North Keekwan, not on the slopes of Wangtai. If the Russians had fought in front of these forts as they fought on 203-Meter Hill, Port Arthur would not have fallen when it did, and Marshal

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Oyama would not have had the aid of General Nogi's army and guns in the battle of Mukden. In my judgment, the surrender on the 1st of January was justifiable, because the situation was then hopeless; but the capture of the forts which made it hopeless was the direct result of weakness, lack of intelligence, and lack of foresight on the part of the general in command of the fortress. The surrender was discreditable only as the final outcome of military incapacity. The Russian soldiers, as a rule, fought with a courage that deserves the highest commendation; but the Russian commanders, with the exception of Kondrachenko, Folk, and Smirnof, were wholly outclassed by the Japanese.

In a review of the siege as a whole, the first thing that deserves attention and comment is the accuracy and effectiveness of the Japanese gun-fire. It was this that made the sapping and mining possible, and to this more than to any other single agency is the fall of the fortress attributable. General Teshima, who directed the work of the siege artillery, may not have given the world a lesson in the art of mounting and serving heavy guns in the field, but he certainly showed conclusively that he and his subordinates knew all that the most expert ordnance officers of the world could teach them, and that they were fully capable of adapting and applying their knowledge to new conditions. The use of the telephone in directing the fire of big guns was a new feature in warfare, and it was carried by the Japanese to a degree of perfection which may perhaps be equaled in future sieges, but is not likely to be excelled. The eleven-inch howitzers, which determined the result of the siege, were all aimed by electricity from lookouts that were two or three miles distant, and over ranges of four thousand meters they dropped their ponderous shells into the forts by day and by night with such deadly accuracy that the garrisons could make no effective reply. I cannot remember seeing a dozen shots fired from Sungshushan, Ehrlungshan, and the two Keekwans in the course of six whole weeks. This silencing of the forts against which the Japanese were conducting siege operations greatly facilitated the work of the sappers, and made it possible for them to carry their trenches to the counterscarps of the moats. The big Russian guns were not served with anything like this accuracy, and four-fifths of the ammunition used by them was wasted.

Japanese methods as compared with the methods of the Russians showed greater care, intelligence, prevision, and thoroughness. The Russians mounted their heavy guns in the field on more or less rickety emplacements of wooden timbers, while the Japanese set their eleven-inch howitzers on steel turntables embedded in eight feet of solid concrete. The Russians distributed all their food and ammunition by means of horses and carts, while the Japanese carried theirs to the camps and gun positions over ten or twelve miles of narrow-gauge tramway. In minor strategy, and particularly in the small arts of concealment and deception, the Japanese were far superior to their adversaries; but, on the other hand, the Russians showed great skill and ingenuity in illuminating the scene of action at night, and were the first to use star rockets, parachute torches, and powerful searchlights. Both sides employed the telephone, but the Japanese system of electrical intercommunication was the more extensive and useful. The Russians conceived the idea of protecting their intrenchments by means of wires charged with a high-tension electric current, but in practice the experiment failed to meet their expectations. The same thing may be said of their subterranean mines. They buried nearly or quite one thousand in front of the ten-mile semicircle of their forts, but few of them caused serious damage, and after the surrender the Japanese dug up more than eight hundred that had not been exploded.

In capacity to endure severe punishment for the sake of a compensating advantage, the besieged were far inferior to the besiegers. The Russians, with a few noteworthy exceptions, were not willing to sacrifice as many lives as were necessary to take or hold an important strategical position, while the Japanese never flinched at any loss that enabled them to score a point. This was shown

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conclusively in the holding of the Panlungshan hills by the Japanese, in spite of almost incredible suffering, hardship, and loss, and the virtual abandonment of the counterscarps of the central forts by the Russians, after a struggle that was comparatively insignificant.

The only serious mistakes made by the Japanese were due to ignorance of the width and depth of the Russian moats and the nature of their subterranean defenses. As a result of this ignorance they made assaults which were foredoomed to failure, and which cost them thousands of lives. It seemed to me, moreover, that they erred in not carrying their trenches around behind the Russian forts, so as to cut off the latter's supply of water, ammunition, and food. If they could hold positions, as they did, directly in front of the forts, as well as on both sides of them, I fail to see why they could not have held positions behind them and thus have prevented them from getting water. If, for example, they could have carried their saps entirely around 203-Meter Hill, so as to isolate it, hunger and thirst would soon have compelled the garrison to surrender. The men in the trenches between the hill and Port Arthur would doubtless have been compelled to withstand a desperate attack, but it could hardly have been worse than the attacks that were made on the East Panlungshan Hill in August and September, and the loss certainly could not have been greater than that sustained in taking the hill by storm. I make this tentative criticism with hesitation, because full consideration was doubtless given to the subject by General Nogi's engineers; but the same idea was suggested, independently, to one of our military observers, who went carefully over the ground after the surrender.

In the early part of November I received, from a retired general officer of the American Civil War, a suggestion that, in the present advanced stage of hydraulic engineering, it would be a comparatively easy matter to destroy the Russian forts by means of water. To any one who has seen hydraulic mining, as practiced in California, and who is familiar with the capacity of modern pumps, this suggestion will not seem to be wholly wild or visionary. The sea was distant only two and a half to three and a half miles from the forts of the eastern sector; there were near it high and sheltered positions where the Japanese might have made a reservoir or erected a standpipe; and it would not have been difficult to carry the water through the trenches to the very edges of the Sungshushan, Ehrlungshan, and North Keekwan moats. Such streams of water as those employed by hydraulic miners on the Pacific coast, or even such streams as those thrown by New York City fire-boats and steam fire-engines, would have filled the Russian moats, drowned out the men in the caponieres and subterranean casemates, washed away the parapets, and made the forts absolutely untenable. I have no expert knowledge of the subject, and am unable to express an opinion with regard to the practicability of delivering such streams at the points of attack; but I am informed that the hydraulic method of reducing earthworks had received the approval of General Halleck, and was about to be tried at Vicksburg when the city surrendered. The author of the suggestion requested me to submit his letter to General Nogi, and I did so; but at that stage of the siege it was too late to make a complete change of methods, even if it had been practicable. It seems to me probable, however, that water will yet be tried in sieges where a source of supply is accessible and where the trenches of approach have been carried within fire-engine range of the earthworks.

The oversights and mistakes of the Russians, in the course of the siege, were many and great; but the most inexcusable and fatal of them were, first, the failure to make a desperate and prolonged fight in defense of the counterscarps of the moats, and, second, the foolish attempt to save the ships. I have already pointed out the consequences of the first error, and the second is also worthy of a moment's consideration. In view of the fact that Japan had a fleet which was very weak in battle-ships, and which could not be strengthened in the course of the war, while Russia had a formidable reserve of vessels of that

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class in the Baltic, it would obviously have been good play on the part of the latter to bring about, if possible, what a chess-player would call an exchange of rooks in the Far Eastern corner of the board. The Port Arthur fleet was absolutely useless in the harbor, and if, by sacrificing it to the last ship and the last man, the Russians could have weakened Admiral Togo's strength by one-half, they would have had at least a fair chance of recovering command of the sea with their Baltic reserve. Every consideration of strategy and expediency, therefore, should have impelled them to go out with their whole force, fight to an absolute finish, and sink as many of the enemy's ships as possible before they perished. The Japanese would have been capable of such a sacrifice, and would have had intelligence enough to see the necessity for it. The Russians, however, tried to save their ships by keeping them under the protection of the forts, and finally lost them all without obtaining the slightest compensating advantage.

The siege of Port Arthur lasted four months, and the number of forts and batteries captured by the Japanese, or turned over to them on the day of surrender, was fifty-two. The loss of the Russians in killed and wounded is said by General Smirnof to have been 15,000. No statement of the Japanese loss has ever been made, but I estimate it at 45,000. The bloodiest engagements were the August assault and the fight for 203-Meter Hill.

The only attempt at a review of the siege from the point of view of the Russian commander is to be found in the self-excusing and self-justifying reports and speeches made by General Stoessel between Port Arthur and Moscow, most of which I have already quoted. The view taken by the Japanese commander is set forth in the following private letter written by General Nogi to the Minister of War shortly after the surrender:

"I wish you all the compliments of the season. The feeling I have, at this moment, is solely one of anguish and humiliation that I should have expended so many lives, so much ammunition, and such a long time in the accomplishment of this task. General Stoessel's patience seems at last to have become exhausted, and he has surrendered the fortress, so that in this part of the field a settlement has been reached. I have no excuse to offer to my Sovereign and to my countrymen for this unscientific, unstrategical combat of brute force. Our preparations are now complete, and we are looking forward with great pleasure to tasting the sweets of a field campaign. I thank you heartily for your kind condolences on the death of my sons,[1] and I beg you to forgive my long display of military unskillfulness."

As illustrations of spirit and character it would be hard to imagine utterances more diverse and in sharper contrast than the reports and speeches of General Stoessel and the letter written by General Nogi, at the end of one of the greatest sieges recorded in the pages of history.

[1] General Nogi has been left childless. One of his two sons was killed early in the Manchurian campaign and the other at the storming of 203-Meter Hill.

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The Duma in Russia

By E. J. Dillon

Dr. Émile Joseph Dillon, the son of an Irish father and an English mother, has enjoyed a remarkably cosmopolitan education, having been a student at the Collège de France at Paris and at the Universities of Innsbrück, Leipsic, Tübingen, St. Petersburg, Louvain, and Kharkov. At St. Petersburg he won the degree of Master of Oriental Languages, at Louvain that of Doctor of Oriental Languages and Literature, and at Kharkov that of Master and then that of Doctor of Comparative Philology and Classical Languages. With this eminence in a particular department, it is not surprising to note among the titles of Dr. Dillon's publications "The Place Occupied by the Armenian Language in the Indo-European Family," "The Dualism of the Zend Avesta," "A Translation of the History of the Armenian Writer Eliseus," and "The History of the Scandinavian Literature in the Middle Ages," all first published in Russian; "The Home and Age of the Avesta," "L'Alphabet de la Langue Bactrienne," and, finally, "Die Transkription der Eranischen Sprachen." Besides these learned publications in philology and literature, Dr. Dillon has also entered the theological list, as witness his "Skeptics of the Old Testament," "The Policy of the Pope," and his articles signed "Voces Catholicæ." Appealing to a still wider audience are his books on "Russian Characteristics," "Maxim Gorky," etc. Dr. Dillon is a frequent and valued contributor to the best magazines, and among the hundred and twenty newspaper correspondents at the Portsmouth Peace Conference no one was more distinguished than this scholar, observer, and man of the world, who reported the conference for the London "Daily Telegraph." Dr. Dillon is a great traveler, and seems equally at home in Armenia, Crete, the Far East, America, or in any country of Europe. In addition to his scholastic predilections, he has a specially intimate knowledge of Russian life, for he married a Russian lady, edited a Russian paper, has become professor at a Russian university, and has been treated with marked consideration by the Russian Government. He is thus particularly fitted to describe Russian social and political conditions, precedent to the Czar's promulgation of a Duma, or Parliament, and as likely to be affected by the establishment of such a body.—THE EDITORS.

RUSSIA is in a Medea's caldron from which she will shortly emerge rejuvenated, or rather let us say wholly regenerated, with much of the dross and impurities of the so-called Slavic character gone. Outwardly and inwardly she is undergoing a radical change. To her foreign policy in the Far East, which seemed to many unbiased observers needlessly aggressive, the Peace of Portsmouth has put an end perhaps for all time, certainly for a quarter of a century. Her vital interests, happily for herself, are now bound up with inner development rather than external expansion; for her resources, enormous though they undoubtedly are, would prove utterly inadequate to both. Internally, too, the end of a historic era is at hand; the one hundred and forty millions of human beings who have hitherto been governed from a political center irrespective of their own wishes and local needs are henceforward to be represented, consulted, listened to. They have received a charter.

It is not a constitutional, it is only a consultative, assembly that will meet next January and inform the Czar what measures ought to be adopted and what laws should be made or repealed in the interests of the nation. But the name is immaterial; important is the change involved in the new institution. And it is truly radical. Never before have the common people had a voice in the Government of the Empire of which they are the caryatides. It is they who bear the weight of the enormous pyramid known as the Russian Empire, they who furnish the men and money for an army of four million soldiers and a navy which down to last year was the fourth in the world; and it is they, too, who display the moral stamina and the intellectual fiber which constitute Russia's greatest

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asset in the world of literature and culture. Yet hitherto they have been tonguetied and inarticulate.

Autocracy, theocracy, absolute government in some of its shapes, may be theoretically the worst or the best way of carrying on the business of a nation, but in the concrete case of the contemporary Russian people the conditions have changed forever under which it was desirable or even feasible. So long as the peasant was childlike, illiterate, heedless of passing events, and almost indifferent to material comfort, everything moved smoothly enough. The bureaucrats said unto one man, Come, and he came, Go, and he went. Obedience was as natural as breathing. There is a story told of Peter the Great, who, when a friend of his in western Europe was boasting of the devotion of an old and trusted retainer, beckoned to a member of his own suite, pointed to the open window, and, with a sweeping movement of his hand, silently ordered the man to throw himself out. And the stalwart subject of the Great Czar bowed low, turned sharply round, rushed off, and was about to spring headforemost on to the street below, when he was stopped in the nick of time by the servants of Peter's host. Although only a legend, the story is characteristic of a time the last hours of which are slowly passing away.

During that epoch the governing classes spoke and acted for the nation. Their good and bad points, and more especially the latter, were stamped as characteristic of the great Slav people, and in this way a picture of the Russian race was drawn which is very little better than a caricature. One has but to open the books written upon Russia during the past twenty-five years to find that the good qualities which characterize the race have been almost uniformly ignored, while the others have been unduly emphasized. Hence the view that prevails almost everywhere to-day respecting Russians is one-sided and erroneous.

In the new order of things which is now about to begin, all that would seem destined to be changed. The people, as distinguished from the privileged classes, will come to the front; individuals as well as institutions will speak and act; and while Russian policy will not cease to be national, its expression will become personal, colored with the humane sympathies and purified by the ethical strivings of the masses. And among these tendencies which one may without exaggeration term national, the American as well as the West European will note with pleasure and perhaps astonishment a degree of idealism in political and economic aspirations which among most civilized peoples of the globe was deemed to be extinct. Nowadays the principle underlying all political action is that the leaders of the nation are but trustees for the people, and as such must keep themselves well within the bounds of national egotism. Whatever they themselves may think or feel, the business of the country has to be conducted without reference to sentiments or emotions. As the manager of an estate would at all times bear the interests of his employers in mind, sacrificing naught to generous impulses, and utilizing every opportunity that offered, so must the foreign secretary seek to further the interests of the State without swerving in the direction of kindliness or humanity. "No maudlin sentiment" is the watchword.

Now, nothing could well be less Russian than that. Among the real characteristics of the people which will strike the foreigner all the more forcibly that they are almost entirely unsuspected is altruism. In every walk of life, in every social class, that idealistic trait of which the bureaucracy would seem to be utterly devoid is operative for good. Even during the absolutist era which is now coming to a close, when the aspirations of the Russian people were not only disregarded but harshly suppressed, that noble quality more than once forced itself upwards into the light of day, slowly and arduously, like the seed struggling towards sunlight and warmth, until it finally made its influence felt in the highest regions.

It was thus that, in the seventies of the last century, the masses moved the central government to change radically a policy which was distinctly in their own interests for a line of action not only humane but diametrically opposed to

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those interests. Prince Gortschakoff's aim and resolve was to let the insurrection in the Balkans smolder out or be extinguished by Bashibazuks. But Russia's mission, as understood by the masses, was to protect the Christians of the East, whatever the cost to themselves, and in this case the cost meant the sacrifice of myriads of men and millions of money, as well as the postponement of internal reforms upon which the people had set their heart. Oddly enough, the Government left nothing undone to stem the altruistic current; by means of official *communiqués* cold water was thrown upon the anti-Turkish movement, newspapers were punished summarily for attempting to fan the flame of enthusiasm, and popular men were privately informed that their agitation would be ungently suppressed. But the altruism of the masses carried the day, and Bulgaria was freed from Ottoman misrule. And, despite the awful sufferings of the soldiers, the increased taxation of the nation, and the barrenness of the campaign from a political point of view, no war was ever so popular among the bulk of the Russian people as that which led to the resurrection of Bulgaria.

Another instance of the same altruistic spirit occurred this very year at the congress of the zemstvo representatives in Moscow. Indeed, one might truly affirm that the zemstvo congresses last year and this year offer a long series of object-lessons in Russian selflessness. To begin with, these congresses were assemblies of members of the nobility for the purpose of breaking down the barriers that had subsisted for ages between the peasant and the aristocracy, the disfranchised and the privileged. Here were the noblemen of Russia, willing and anxious to raise the ignorant peasants to the same political level as themselves, and resolved to effect this reform at the imminent risk of their own personal liberty. For the Government had forbidden the meeting of the Congress, threatening to arrest, imprison, and otherwise punish those who should disobey the prohibition, and had given strict orders to the police to carry out this measure. But the nobles met as they had promised, risked their freedom as they had risked and lost it so often before, and passed the resolutions which have since become historical.

At that Congress there were only two non-members present—a personal friend of mine and myself. And during the debates resolutions were enthusiastically adopted by the members which ran directly counter to their own class interests. I remember in particular one instance which made a deep impression on me. The question before the Congress was whether indirect suffrage would not be preferable to universal and direct voting. Some of the speakers had strongly advocated the second alternative, and supported it by arguing that if the principle "one man one vote" were applied in Russia, the peasants of each electoral district would choose local men of no importance to the exclusion of the zemstvo noblemen who had contributed to confer upon them the right of universal suffrage. It was then that one of the leaders of the reform party, Ivan Petrunkievich, arose, and to the accompaniment of loud cheers uttered these remarkable words: "Even though one and all we should be eliminated from the new representative chamber by the peasants, it would none the less be our duty to vote for universal and direct suffrage if that seemed to us, as it apparently does, the right course. The possibility or probability that the peasantry would prefer men of their own class to nobles is no argument against giving them direct and universal suffrage." It was in just the same way that Shipoff had worked and suffered a couple of years ago for the liberal zemstvos, by whom he was now abandoned in favor of his more radical colleagues. Now, all these men knew full well what they were doing, and foresaw clearly the effect of their intended action upon their own interests. Yet without a moment's hesitation they took the step, prompted by a sense of duty wholly irrespective of the manner in which it would affect themselves. No better illustration could be asked for or given of Kant's ethical maxim, to disregard the consequences of acts which are dictated by a principle of altruism.

And these instances might be multiplied at will. My own experience is

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full of them. One case which struck many persons at the time produced little effect upon me, who am accustomed to such. It was this: One of the principal champions of the enfranchisement of the peasants was a nobleman named N. N. Lvoff, whose opponents often warned him that he was cutting a stick to beat his own back, and that once the peasants obtained more elbow-room they would oust him and his class out of their property and treat the nobles as the revolutionists in France dealt with the upper classes. His reply was like that of Petrunkievich about universal suffrage: "I hope they will not. But if they do, their abuse of liberty would be irrelevant as an argument against granting liberty." One day early this year the prophecy came true. The peasants of the district in which Lvoff's property is situated rose up for what they deemed their rights, took possession of his property, cut down a vast number of trees in his forests, and carted them away. In other parts of the Empire, where similar acts of violence were then taking place, the landowners generally called in the Cossacks and had the peasants "firmly dealt with." And Lvoff was now urged by his friends to do likewise. But, very far from acting upon the suggestion, he merely removed his family to Moscow, and remained on his estate without a word of remonstrance to the peasants or a breath of complaint to the authorities. And a few weeks later that same man risked his liberty in order to appear at the forbidden Congress of Moscow, and when there it was he who more emphatically, more suasively, more successfully than the rest insisted on the advisability of bestowing upon the peasants the rights enjoyed by the nobles, and of introducing universal suffrage into Russia.

Now, these are some of the benign influences to which, as I believe, the coming imperial Duma is about to give free scope for the first time in Russian history. I do not mean that the charter granted by the Emperor is perfect or even adequate; indeed, I hold that it is merely a feeble beginning. But it really is a beginning, it is the Archimedean fulcrum, the breaking of the ice. The Duma once in working order, everything else is sure to follow, and it is upon that conviction that I base my forecast that the new era of internal development which has been inaugurated simultaneously with the Peace of Portsmouth will bring forth changes more beneficent and more marvelous than the most sanguine among us venture to anticipate.

The End of the Feud

In Two Parts—I.

By M. C. Skeel

SHOESTRING Valley stretches its narrow length along the foot of Walden's Ridge. At the southern tip of the string once stood Luke Mallett's store; somewhere in a near-by ravine was hidden a Mallett still, and the younger generation of the Malletts was noted for liquor and lawlessness even in Shoestring Valley.

At its northern end, where the tip runs up on the ridge, and the Shoestring River bursts from the hills with the force of its hundred springs, the Trafford mill drew grain from valley and ridge alike. Near by on one of the barren hillside farms lived Abram Trafford, owner of the mill, kin by blood or marriage to half the people of the township, and a veteran of the Civil War. He was a man of great physical strength and domineering disposition, but the Traffords were, as a rule, neither aggressive nor quarrelsome, though they had plenty of fighting blood, and were fiercely persistent when once involved in a fray. They appeared in force at the "big meetin's," and furnished frequent candidates for immersion in the Shoestring. Abram Trafford accounted for this peculiarity in his own immediate family by regretfully

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remarking that, though he was living with his third wife and had four sets of children, these last were "mostly gal critters."

The line of cleavage made by the Civil War struck square across Shoestring Valley, and ranged the Malletts and the Traffords on opposing sides. If you think that the bitterness then engendered has disappeared with the lapse of forty years, live six months in the valley and learn better. Nevertheless, Time is the great peacemaker. In the early nineties the Malletts sometimes brought a grist to the Trafford mill; the Traffords occasionally patronized the Mallett store and still; there were even intermarriages between the clans, and the heads of families avoided certain subjects of conversation when they chanced to meet.

Therefore it was unfortunate that Abram Trafford, returning from the funeral of a former comrade, and having imbibed much liquid consolation, should be seized with a desire to stop at the Mallett store on his way home and describe the ceremony to its proprietor.

"Luke couldn't say a decent word of Sam Wilson, jest 'cos he war a Unioner, but I bet no dead Secesh in Sherrod County ever got a better buryin', and I want him to know hit."

"Well, Abe," Mr. Mallett greeted his former foe with perfunctory civility, "been to the Cove, eh? Found the mud shoe-mouth deep, didn't ye?"

The visitor was in a disposition of mind to dispute any statement advanced by the Malletts. He sniffed scornfully, and essayed to sit down on the end of a box, but his center of gravity was unstable and he made connections with a suddenness that brought a grin to the face of young Bill Mallett—commonly known as "Luke's Bill" to distinguish him from other members of the family bearing the same Christian name.

"I reckon you-all's done forgot that water dreens off'n the rocks in the Cove same's it does off'n a duck's back. All the mud I've struck is right down yere."

Catching the grin on young Bill's face, the speaker added, severely:

"The's always mud down yere if the's mud anywheres."

Mr. Mallett took occasion to kick his son's shin by way of caution, and the visitor made a fresh start. "I bin to the biggest and finest buryin' that's ever happened in this yer county—Corp'ril Samuel Wilson's. Yes, sir; biggest and finest buryin' ever I see."

"Sam Wilson—Fat Sam? Well, it got ter be a big buryin'. Old Sam must 'a' weighed nigh on ter three hundred."

"Reckon they had ter scratch hard ter get dirt enough off'n them rocks to kiver him," cackled Bill, and old Abram fixed him with a fierce glare.

"They is folks, not a thousing miles from yere," he said, impressively, "that scratched almighty hard to kiver him and some of the rest of us up nigh thirty year ago, but they wa'n't men enough to do hit; no, sir."

At this juncture Bill's hound invited a visiting dog to leave the store porch. Bill and several others rushed out to see the result, which was disappointing because of the visitor's prompt retreat. When they returned, Mr. Trafford was in the full tide of reminiscence.

"The flag he fit fur war ropped round the coffing—"

"Ter hold hit together," Bill whispered, quite loud enough to be heard.

"And ther war twenty on us wearing buttings like this," tapping his coat, "that marched two an' two behind hit."

"You've seen as many as a thousing of the same fellers goin' lickety-split in front, hain't ye, dad?"

Trafford rose to his feet in a fury.

"He could 'a' seen 'em times a-plenty if he'd stopped long enough to look behind him, ye sassy whelp, that ain't never been licked into shape."

"Look hyar, Abe," interposed the elder Mallett, pushing in between the two, "keep a civil tongue in your head or clar out. We-all ain't honin' ter know whether ye stuck Sam Wilson inter the ground head first or feet first."

"So's ye planted him ter stay," added the irrepressible, and Trafford flung himself from the store, raging.

He stopped several times on his way up the valley to recount the incident, and each recital stimulated his wrath. By the time he reached home it possessed him body and soul.

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In the doorway sat his wife, sorting rags for dyeing; she was a thin, sallow woman, more than twenty years younger than her husband and looking fully as old. On the log which did duty as a step to the sagging porch sprawled a youth of eighteen, so intent on a book lying at his side that Trafford's wrath surged hotly over him.

"Move your karkiss out'n the way, 'fore I break hit square in two, ye lazy loafer! I don't stand no Mallett sass from my young-uns, let me tell ye that."

The youth pushed the book hastily behind him and sat up. "What-all the Malletts been a-doin', paw?" he asked.

Then did Mr. Trafford open his mouth and curse the Malletts root and branch, from their downsitting to their uprising, and enlarge upon their uncivil treatment until the son's eyes were as fiery as the father's speech.

Mrs. Trafford, less moved, simply commented: "You hadn't no call to stop at the store and rile Luke 'bout Sam Wilson's buryin'. The Malletts and the Wilsons hain't never hitched, and you know hit."

"'Twa'n't so much Luke," snapped her spouse; "'twere that sassy cub o' hisn—youngest and meanest of the hull bunch."

"Naw, I don't guess hit could 'a' been," said Mrs. Trafford, reaching out to hang a "hank" of rags on a nail in the side of the cabin. "The youngest—that's Charle—'s a-livin' with his grandmam Mucker over t'other side of the mounting in Gum Gap. I reckon 'twere Luke's Bill. He air sassy."

"I'll sass him if I ketch him. What's that ye say, Al? He's a-drivin' through our woods up to Clinch's after spoke timber? By the Lord Harry! I'll give him a trouncin' that he won't fergit in on one while."

"You'd best be keerful how you stir them Malletts up, Abram," urged his wife. Her advice did not receive even the courtesy of a grunt. Mr. Trafford tipped his chair back against the cabin and went to sleep, while Albert once more drew out the book.

Three times he had ridden far to borrow it, and twice returned disappointed. It was the only book of its kind in that end of the valley—an old arithmetic that had been passed from hand to hand for years. The lettering on the covers was almost illegible; the leathern binding of the back had been replaced by a strip of homespun glued on with rye paste. Men whose hair was turning gray had learned to count from it; their children's children were beginning to copy the figures in rude, childish scrawl. Its present student could read by spelling the hard words, could write his name in peculiar hieroglyphics, and add on his fingers. By the dwellers in the valley and on the ridge-side this was considered a fair education.

The bar sinister marked young Albert's birth. When "not much more'n a yearlin'," to use the valley phrase, Abram Trafford brought him to the cabin and plumped him down by the twin girls, his second wife's contribution to the household.

"He's got as much right yere as they have." It was all the explanation vouchsafed then or ever. The second Mrs. Trafford accepted the babe perforce; to the third, he was simply one of several stepchildren. Her own proving all girls, and the lad of a kind disposition, though with a temper not unlike his father's, quite an affection had grown up between them.

From far up on the edge of the ridge a clear, soft, jubilant peal rolled echoing down into Shoestring Valley. Young Trafford lifted his head; the senior rubbed his heavy eyes and muttered, "What's that?"

"I reckon hit's the school the Yankees air startin' up in Fairview," the lad answered, his gaze fixed on the high, bold sky-line. "John Casey 'lows to go up thar next week."

"He do, eh? Whar'll he get the money? Old Sam can't more'n keep the tribe in hog-meat."

"John's been workin' in the mines, savin' on purpose. He says some on 'em'll be let to work fer their keep."

"Well, he's a dern fool, and Casey's a heap foolisher—lettin' him waste his time thataway, big as he air. S'posin' you quit wastin' yourn and hunt the cows."

His word was law. Albert put the

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book carefully away on a shelf in the kitchen, to take it down and pore over it again in the fading daylight. It was tucked into the bosom of his shirt in the morning when he went to the woods to watch for Bill Mallett and incidentally to cut hoop-poles. At his side trotted his two little half-sisters. Once more the bell sent a melodious call down the mountain, and he paused in his upward climb to listen.

"Sounds pretty, don't hit, Al?" asked one of the little girls.

"Yes. How'd you-all like to go up thar to school?"

"Naw, naw," they cried, together. "Virge Harris says them Yankees'll knock out yore eye-teeth and skin yo' alive."

Their half-brother burst into a shout of laughter. "I 'low Virge kin do some pretty tall lyin'," he said.

For an hour or more the soft forest murmurs were broken only by the pecking of his ax and the chatter of the little girls as they played about him; then, in the distance, a raucous, youthful voice launched itself profanely at a team of stolid mules. Albert waited until the wagon had climbed, creaking, past, when he called to the elder of the two girls:

"Hunt the shack now, Ellen, and tell paw that Bill's done gone by."

The two sunbonnets, nearly on a level, bobbed quickly away through the underbrush. In half an hour the elder Trafford joined his son, and proceeded grimly to cut and trim several stout switches. With Albert's help he then rolled some logs across the narrow woods road, and afterward concealed himself behind a tree.

The wagon returned, heralded by profanity and blows. Bill sat sidewise on the load, with his hat cocked jauntily over one ear. He whacked, spit, and sang by turns, until the mules halted suddenly before the improvised barrier.

Bill inquired, with adjectives, what they were stopping for, and redoubled his blows. These producing no effect, he leaned forward, observed the barrier with profane surprise, and climbed down to investigate, finding himself instantly clutched by "ol' man Trafford, with the devil in him big as a whale," according to Bill's later testimony. The captor shouted to his son to "Bring them gads," and laid the same on without mercy.

"Thar!" he said, flinging away the pieces of the last one, "mebbe ye'll larn to speak civil to men that fit and bled fer their country before ye was hatched." He gave the lad a push toward the wagon, while Albert dragged away the logs from before it.

Bill answered only with his tears until he had reached a safe distance, when he hurled back a storm of threats and curses at which old Abe only chuckled.

He continued to chuckle even when word reached him that the whole lower end of the valley was buzzing like a beehive.

"I wisht you quit Shoestring fer a while, paw," pleaded his second daughter, who had married a Mallett. "Dan says he can't blame his uncle Luke fer gittin' mad; you shore did welt Bill black and blue, and him and the other boys claim they'll shoot ye on sight."

"Threatened pups lives to git gray," scoffed her parent. "I ain't been brung up in Trafford woods to be skeered by Mallett owls."

Then, while the tide of feeling rose higher and higher, election day came on apace, and the whole surrounding country prepared to empty itself into Boltville, the county seat.

James Trafford, the hectic-faced young miller, half despised by old Abram because of his poor health, usually ran the mill through the forenoon to grind the grists of those who stopped on their way to vote, and in the afternoon performed his duty as a freeman. But the mill stood idle all of that particular election day, and the miller rode with his father and brother to Boltville long before noon.

"I won't be of much account if it comes to fightin', that's shore," he confided to his wife, "but mebbe I can keep paw out'n Mallett's way and toll him home sorter early. If he and Al git to drinkin' hard, one on 'em's too old and t'other's too young to have much sense left. Paw won't keer what he says, and, drunk or sober, the Malletts don't keer a darn what they do."

From the moment of their entering

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town the senior Trafford was constantly greeted with "Hello, Abe! ain't skeered of no Secesh, be ye?"

"I don't guess I be—I don't guess so," was the unvarying reply, followed by an invitation to refreshment from one comrade or the other—invitations which James steadily refused.

"It's like to set me coughin'," was the reason he gave, and all day the tall, stooping figure of his eldest son hovered about Abram Trafford—a queer guardian angel, and one whose care would have been fiercely resented had its object suspected it. With ostentatious scorn Trafford had left his revolver at home and ordered Albert to do the same.

The Malletts were on hand in force, all armed and drinking heavily; the crowd at large was nearly equally divided as to sympathies, both social and political. Fortunately, the drinking-places frequented by the opposing factions were at different ends of the town; and the county sheriff, who was known to be a man of exceptional nerve, had announced his intention of preserving the public peace at any cost.

Abram refused to be tolled home early, and the strain of watchfulness bore hard on the consumptive. When, late in the afternoon, his father and Samuel Casey sat down to talk together in a comparatively quiet part of the town, James went into the house of a friend who lived near by to rest. "Don't let paw out'n your sight," was his final caution to Albert.

The elder Trafford and the elder Casey were on the porch of a small store. On the side and in the shade of the same building John Casey detailed his experiences at the Fairview Normal Institute to Albert, a deeply interested listener. The corner of the store prevented their seeing the approach of Bill Mallett and a number of companions who were scuffling boisterously among themselves. When opposite the store, Bill threw a tobacco quid at one of the crowd; by accident or design, it went wide of the mark and struck old Abram on the knee.

Trafford bounced to his feet and rushed toward young Mallett. "Ye imp o' Satan! Want another trouncing, do ye?" shaking his fist in the lad's face. The group halted, and Sam Casey cried, "He wa'n't throwin' at you, Abe; he sure wa'n't. I see him."

"I reckon I larnt him better," said Trafford, turning away with a grim laugh. Instantly Bill drew a pistol and fired, the muzzle almost touching Trafford's body.

"You hound, to shoot me in the back!" gasped the wounded man, turning half round and falling into the arms of the two Caseys, while Albert hurled himself upon Mallett, bringing him to the ground and stabbing at him with a jack-knife. One of the bullets now flying freely about broke the avenger's wrist, but as the knife fell Trafford caught it with his left hand and drove it into the murderer again and again.

Wounded as he was, it took the united efforts of the sheriff and two deputies to drag the lad away. To the last he fought them fiercely, and, overpowered, spit with venomous fury at his prostrate foe.

"Thar, thar, Al," said the sheriff, soothingly, "that ain't bein' a man. My God, what a piece of work!"

Abram Trafford lay dead across the knees of his eldest son, whose frantic haste to reach the scene had brought on hemorrhage, and he was nearly as lifeless as his father. Besides Bill Mallett, bleeding from a dozen stabs, and Albert Trafford, three others had been badly wounded, and eight men were in the custody of the sheriff and his deputies.

James Trafford lived three weeks after his father's death, and his half-brother was with him day and night. Wild stories were told of the fearful oaths with which the elder had pledged the younger to revenge; no rest nor peace, it was said, could Albert Trafford know until Mallett lives had answered for his father's death. It is certain that the younger brother felt himself so bound; it is equally certain that the elder never spoke of the matter until the end.

That came one evening at sunset, when he had asked to have the cabin door set wide open. His home was on the ridge-side, and he could look across the valley with its shining thread of river to the misty blue of mountains far beyond.

It was toward the east he looked, the

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sky glowing with reflected splendor from the glory behind the hills. Long he gazed in silence; then, with slow gathering of his feeble powers, he murmured, "Al," and again, "Al."

"What is it, Jim?"

"It seems—like—as if—there'd orter be some other way."

And that must have been the pledge of vengeance that they said he died with on his lips, for he never spoke again.

[TO BE CONTINUED]

The Friends of England[1]

SOME three years ago Mr. George Peel published, under the title of "The Enemies of England," the results of an inquiry into the foreign policy of England during the past eight hundred years. Attention was centered on her policy in Europe, and it was argued that the many European wars in which she has engaged have been directed to withstanding the attempts of certain powers to secure dominion over the Continent, her opposition being provoked by the knowledge that the success of any one of them would involve her downfall. Mr. Peel has since undertaken a study of England's policy in the world outside of Europe, and his conclusions, as now expressed in a work entitled "The Friends of England," are of interest in their advocacy of a theory in sharp contrast with the views commonly entertained respecting the genesis and development of the British Empire.

As is well known, writers on the subject have usually aligned themselves with one of two distinct schools of thought. According to the first, the Empire was created without any definite aim—in a fit of national absent-mindedness, so to speak. Mr. Chamberlain exactly voiced the sentiments of this school when he said, in a recent address to his fellow-countrymen, "We have never had a colonial policy; but, somehow or other, we have been allowed to blunder into the best parts of the world." The second school, on the contrary, excludes the element of chance and regards the Empire as the fruit of deeply calculated design, but design having rapacity for its animating principle. Mr. Peel's contention is that neither the one nor the other school is correct; that the Empire, in brief, was organized as a bulwark against the forward march of England's European rivals. "On the gradual opening up of the continents of Asia, America, Australia, and Africa, the foremost powers of Europe began to appropriate those regions in such a manner that our old world, so far from being eclipsed by the new, reproduced itself over much of that immense area, and became gradually reincarnate on a vastly wider scale. This evidently constituted a change of the gravest importance for ourselves. Our statesmen perceived that the European powers striving to become dominant in those new continents might eventually become dominant in Europe, thanks to the fresh resources thus acquired; and, if so, then destructive of our security. Hence our old domestic European danger now rose before us in a more threatening shape than before. We who were adjusting the balance of Europe must now adjust the balance of mankind or perish; and, in preserving our own existence, must defend the liberty, not of a continent, but of a world."

This theory cannot be called original with Mr. Peel; but it has never been more ably propounded than in his pages. As against those who see in the Empire a powerful organization founded in greed, he points to England's tardiness in entering into the race for territorial acquisitions in the New World. This tardiness he explains as due to more than the political and economic conditions on which stress is usually laid. "Modern eulogies upon our innate colonizing and seafaring proclivities are misplaced," he declares, and reminds the reader of Hakluyt's observation, penned nearly a century after the discovery of America: "I both heard in speech and read in books other nations miraculously extolled for their discoveries and notable enterprises by

[1] *The Friends of England.* By George Peel. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York.

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sea, but the English, of all others, for their sluggish security and continual neglect of the like attempts." A few years more and these words could not have been written. But the change in spirit was due, in Mr. Peel's view of the case, solely to the sudden awakening of England to the menace of the growing ascendency of Spain.

The colonization of Virginia is thus interpreted as the first step in a statesmanlike plan, credit for which is to be divided between Raleigh and Cecil. Specific proof of the correctness of this interpretation Mr. Peel finds in a contemporary state paper which sets forth that "Virginia being inhabited by His Majesty's subjects will put such a bit in our ancient enemy's [Spain's] mouth as will curb his haughtiness of monarchy." Similarly, the Cromwellian expedition which resulted in the conquest of a part of Spain's New World possessions is regarded as the outcome of a truly imperialistic conception having its origin in necessity, the expedition being directed, in the language of Cromwell's manifesto, against "those who, without any just cause or provocation at all, cease not to kill and slaughter, nay, sometimes in cold blood to murder, the people of this nation, spoiling their goods and estates, destroying their colonies and plantations." At this point the writer hastens to explain that he does not intend to claim that either Cecil or Cromwell planned the structure of any such empire as has since arisen. His argument is that, "just as we in our day annexed East Africa against Germany and West Africa against France, even so, with equal deliberation and for a similar motive, did Cecil's contemporaries annex America, and Cromwell also a portion of the West Indies, against the power of Spain. It is by this series of annexations, made on this principle of self-defense, that the Empire has reached its present extent."

We must refer the reader to the chapters in which, tracing the growth of the modern Empire from its beginnings under Pitt to the present day, Mr. Peel elaborates and supports his theory; and pass to his no less interesting discussion of the Empire's future. This turns on another generalization, likewise sweeping in character. Just as the Empire was created and solidified under the pressure of European rivalry, so, he affirms, the moment that pressure is relaxed the Empire tends to disintegrate. From this standpoint the loss of the American colonies is explained as due, on the one hand, to the inborn sentiments of independence carried by England's children to their new homes, and nurtured there by the contradictory policy adopted by England in granting them free institutions but exercising an arbitrary control over their fortunes; on the other hand, to the temporary eclipse of France, which, in succession to Spain, had threatened the very existence of the colonies and had thus served to prolong their unwilling allegiance to the mother country. On the strength of a note in Evelyn's Diary, Mr. Peel avers that so early as 1761 the disruption of the Empire seemed imminent, and insists that had it not been for the presence of France in America the Navigation Acts would have been seized upon as an excuse to effect complete political independence. "The real cause of the American Revolution was that the innate desire for independence among the colonists of North America was no longer counteracted by the knowledge that France was on their flank in Canada. There was no particular dislike of England among the masses of the American population, and all the events of the war prove this to have been the case." In the reorganized Empire the same tendency to separation is discerned as respects both the self-governing colonies and those—*e.g.*, Egypt and India—to which self-government has been denied. So far as concerns the latter, however, this tendency is held to be effectually offset by the certainty in the minds of the populace "that in case of our retirement our civilization would be wrecked, and that other Europeans would possess themselves of India and Egypt, so that the natives would not be a whit happier or freer than before."

To-day, as it seems to Mr. Peel, European conditions are such as to cause, under the action of the law laid down

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by him, an increasing solidarity of the Empire. But he perceives two factors that may operate to bring about a contrary result. One is the United States, the other the so-called "Yellow Peril." The danger from the former chiefly applies, it appears, to Canada and Australia; that from the "Yellow Peril" to "our peoples of alien race and blood." In neither case does the author anticipate losses from the Empire by conquest. Rather, he discusses the possibility of acquisitions by the United States and Japan through the voluntary action of the peoples of Canada, Australia, India, etc. But his analysis, into which we cannot enter here, leads him finally to the conclusion that, whatever advantages may be gained by such action, sundry and greater disadvantages will accrue; and that the probability is that the peoples involved, if the decision be left to them, will elect to remain members of the British Empire.

A well-written work, Mr. Peel's book is of value as developing a theory which, if acceptable only with obvious limitations, will assist to a clearer appreciation of some broad historical movements than has generally obtained.

Books of the Week

This report of current literature is supplemented by fuller reviews of such books as in the judgment of the editors are of special importance to our readers. Any of these books will be sent by the publishers of The Outlook, postpaid, to any address on receipt of the published price, with postage added when the price is marked "net."

American Book-Plates: A Guide to their Study, with Examples. By Charles Dexter Allen. Illustrated. The Macmillan Co., New York. 5¼×8 in. 435 pages. $2.50.

A new and less expensive edition of this painstaking guide-book has been issued, with a bibliography. The author has made a careful study of the subject, and presents a large collection of examples, beginning with the importations from England in colonial days. While the fashion for book-plate collecting has waned somewhat, there is still sufficient interest in it to warrant the study. There will, no doubt, be an increasing demand for the design and engraving of book-plates, as they are a most desirable luxury to the book-lover. Probably the fact that ten years have passed since "American Book-Plates" was first printed will account for some omissions. One looks through it in vain for the exquisite designs made by E. D. French, over two hundred of which are known. Mr. French is mentioned, but not illustrated. A list of American book-plates is given, useful to the reader, but not offered as complete, that being almost an impossibility. The list of mottoes upon early plates and the list of signed plates add value to the work.

Applied Theology. By Rev. F. C. Montfort, D.D. Montfort & Co., Cincinnati. 4½×7¼ in. 234 pages. $1.

Bible (The): Its True Character and Spiritual Meaning. By Rev. L. P. Mercer. (Third Edition, Rewritten and Enlarged.) The Nunc Licet Press, Philadelphia. 4×6 in. 188 pages.

Bloom of Girlhood (The). By Pauline Page. The Vir Publishing Co., Philadelphia, Pa. 4½×6¼ in. 47 pages. 60c., net.

Book of Old English Love Songs. The Macmillan Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 158 pages. $1.25.

Reserved for later notice.

Boy Craftsman (The): Practical and Profitable Ideas for a Boy's Leisure Hours. By A. Neely Hall. Illustrated. Lee & Shepard, Boston. 5½×8 in. 393 pages. $2.

Child's Own Magazine (The): Seventy-second Annual Volume. Ludgate Hill, E.C. London, England. 6½×8½ in. 148 pages.

Christian Belief Interpreted by Christian Experience. By Charles Cuthbert Hall. (The Barrows Lectures.) University of Chicago Press, Chicago. 6×9 in. 255 pages.

Reserved for later notice.

Collected Sonnets of Lloyd Mifflin. Revised by the Author. Oxford University Press (American Branch), New York. 7×9½ in. 369 pages. $2.60, net. (Postage, 20c. extra.)

Reserved for later notice.

Cities of Umbria (The). By Edward Hutton. Illustrated. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. 5×7¾ in. 303 pages. $2, net.

In paper, print, illustrations (with the exception of those of paintings), and binding Mr. Hutton's book seems to leave nothing to be desired. The text is well written, readable, trustworthy, clearly put, and often has atmosphere, but, despite not a few clever touches, it seems to us in the main unoriginal. As one calls to mind the immortal chain of cities which lie between Rome and Florence—Narvi, Trevi, Spoleto, Spello, Assisi, Perugia, and the rest; as one calls to mind those chiefs of the Umbrian school of painting, Perugino, Pinturicchio, Signorelli, Mellozzo da Forli, and the others; above all, as one recalls the immortal names of Umbria and St. Francis of Assisi, it is impossible to feel that this book voices the feelings of appreciative, æsthetic, and devout travelers. Under any circumstances, however, it would be difficult to voice those feelings. For to one with an instinctive love for the Italian race, for its sunshine and its nature, for its art, above all for the sublime figure in its mediæ-

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val religion, Umbria seems almost beyond any one's description.

Colonel's Dream (The). By Charles W. Chesnutt. Doubleday, Page & Co., New York. 5×8 in. 294 pages. $1.50.

It has not been an infrequent occurrence in the history of American fiction that a writer of excellent short stories fails lamentably when he attempts to write a novel. Mr. Chesnutt a few years ago printed a volume of short stories which deserve to rank very high in their own class of literature. The present book, however, is loosely constructed and is often prolix and dull. It deals with some of the recent problems of the race question in the South, and has special reference to the peonage system. Some of the characters are fairly well drawn, and occasionally the dialogue is clever and interesting; but, taken all in all, the book is not as successful as one could wish, and certainly is distinctly inferior to the author's earlier work, as seen in the two volumes called "The Conjure Woman" and "The Wife of his Youth."

Complete Works of William Shakespeare, with Glossary. In 6 vols. Vol. I. Thomas Nelson & Sons, New York. 4×6¼ in. 493 pages $1.25.

The first volume ot an edition of Shakespeare, small and convenient in form, perfectly legible and readable as regards type, and bound in the limp leather style which is so pleasing. The entire work is to be contained in six volumes. That before us, through the use of thin yet fairly opaque paper, is made to contain seven of the plays.

Comprehensive Bookkeeping: A First Book. By Artemas M. Bogle, A.M. The Macmillan Co., New York. 6¼×9½ in. 142 pages. 90c.

Corporations: A Study of the Origin and Development of Great Business Combinations and of their Relation to the Authority of the State. By John P. Davis, Ph.D. In 2 vols. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. 6×9 in.

Reserved for later notice.

Dan Monroe: A Story of Bunker Hill. By W. O. Stoddard. (Revolutionary Series.) The Lothrop Publishing Co., Boston. 5×7¾ in. 329 pages. $1.25.

Dan Monroe, drummer-boy of the Lexington Militia, and Nat Harrington, fifer, appear under their real names, say the publishers, in Mr. Stoddard's story, according to which Dan does more for his country than beat a drum. The leading figure, however, is Ford Fenner, the quaint Quaker spy. The efforts of the colonists to secure ammunition, the molding of bullets by women, and the troubled, unorganized beginnings of the Revolution at Lexington, Concord, and Boston are pictured.

Deserted Village and Other Poems (The): Together with She Stoops to Conquer and The Good-Natured Man. Edited by Robert N. Whiteford, Ph.D. (Pocket American and English Classics.) The Macmillan Co., New York. 4×5¾ in. 390 pages. 25c.

Diary of a Girl in France, 1821 (The). By Mary Browne. Illustrated. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. 5⅛×8 in. 188 pages. $2.50, net.

A very l. ster-of-fact little English girl went to France with her family, and, much against her wish, stayed there during the summer of 1821. Her diary is amusing, because it is so childlike in attention to details, and is pervaded by a strict and severe condemnation of everything that is not English. She does give the French credit for "being very honest about stealing," but regards their taste in dress with superior horror, and, far from finding them gay and amusing, sets them down as extremely dull. She fills her diary with quaint drawings, showing the costumes of the workpeople. Her comments upon art and nature are delightful, and entirely devoid of the faintest sense of humor.

English Lakes (The). Painted by A. Heaton Cooper. Described by William T. Palmer. The Macmillan Co., New York. 6×9 in. 231 pages. $6.

Here is another of an interesting series of books in which the emphasis is laid upon the paintings reproduced in color rather than upon the text. Surely no region could so well lend itself to this picturesque method of treatment as does the wonderful English Lake Country. The artist has been more than fairly successful in rendering in color some of the effects of mountain, sky, and lake, although it must be confessed that there is much to choose between the pictures as to quality and color scheme. In all, there are seventy-five of these color prints, and combinedly they renew most charmingly one's memories of Rydal, Windermere, Derwentwater, Ullswater, Coniston Water, and many other less known but not less beautiful places. Turning from pictures to text, we find that Mr. Palmer has written with taste and with commendable reserve in distinguishing between poetic feeling and sentimentalism. He makes good use of the literary and personal associations with which the English Lake Country abounds.

Essays of Elia (The). Edited by Helen J. Robins. (Pocket American and English Classics.) The Macmillan Co., New York. 4×5¾ in. 403 pages. 25c.

Five Little Peppers. Vol. 10. Ben Pepper. By Margaret Sidney. Illustrated. The Lothrop Publishing Co., Boston. 5×7¾ in. 474 pages. $1.50.

Another number of a popular series of books for children. The hero is Ben, Mother Pepper's first-born, her "steady-as-a-rock boy." Christmas shopping, in which the Little Peppers take a lively hand, Christmas philanthropies, the usual quota of accidents and pranks, and, finally, Ben's decision as to whether he will go to college or enter a business office, "beginning at the very bottom," are the features of this story.

Flight of Georgiana (The). By Robert Neilson Stephens. Illustrated. L. C. Page & Co., Boston. 5×8 in. 339 pages. $1.50.

Here is a prose variation of "Young Lochinvar." There is nothing new or original about the story, but it has the lightness and grace characterizing predecessors from Mr. Stephens's pen, and sword-play to spare. The scene opens at an English inn; the Pretender has failed to win the British crown; his

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adherents are fleeing for their lives, but, as they fly, pause to make love.

Gardens of Italy (The). By Charles Latham. With Descriptions by E. March Phillipps. In 2 vols. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. 11×17 in. $18, net.

Reserved for later notice.

G. F. Watts: Reminiscences. By Mrs. Russell Barrington. Illustrated. The Macmillan Co., New York. 7×10 in. 210 pages. $5, net.

Reserved for later notice.

Grapple (The). By Grace MacGowan Cooke. L. C. Page & Co., Boston. 5×7¾ in. 415 pages. $1.50.

The hero of this novel, Mark Strong, rises from the ranks of miners to the position of mine-owner, and finds himself opposed by the United Mine Workers, of which body he was once an active member, because he allows non-union men to work in his mines. A struggle ensues between himself and the union, and his life and property are in peril. From first to last, Strong believes in the union, but will not "allow it to run his business for him," and takes exceptions to its choice of methods and abuse of power. He holds that in industrial warfare both capital and labor are in error, and undertakes to say in what respects.

Heart of a Girl (The). By Ruth Kimball Gardiner. Illustrated. A. S. Barnes & Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 386 pages. $1.50.

The strength of this little story lies in the frequent responses it calls up in the mind of the reader, if that reader knows girls. Margy passes through more phases of mental and moral experience, perhaps, than fall to the ordinary girl, but not one of them all is unreal or improbable. Her unconscious acceptance of her home life, and her absolute absorption in her school companions and affairs, give a wonderfully true touch. What woman will not smile appreciatively when she is told that Margy, after vainly struggling with arithmetic, made up a system of her own? "If she had a seven, say, to add to twenty-five, she added ten first; and seven being three less than ten, subtracted three from the result. She worked always with ten, for ten was the number of her fingers." She had a sub-self upon which she depended. Her fingers remembered and played the piano if left to themselves, but if she stopped to think, she could not play the piece through! From a tiny girl sitting on the gate-post, to the triumphant high school graduate, we follow Margy to Margaret, and know we are always with a real girl, independent, faulty, sensitive, and generous, imperious among her fellows, yet a favorite and born leader.

Hebrew Prophet (The). By Loring W. Batten, Ph.D., S.T.D. The Macmillan Co., New York. 5×7¾ in. 351 pages. $1.50.

Though it is forty years since Dean Stanley's lectures on the Jewish Church introduced English readers to truer conceptions of the Hebrew prophets, there is still need of continuing his work with the added light of fresh knowledge. Dr. Batten has done this with ample learning, well digested. The book is popular yet critical, neglecting neither the problems of scholars nor the practical applications of the history. The Hebrew prophets were the unique element by which their nation was distinguished from all others; they were the grandfathers of the Christian Church. In Dr. Batten's story of their development from stage to stage of enlightenment the real nature of the inspiration attributed to them exhibits itself as a moral insight and energy rather than an intellectual inerrancy. The lesson it suggests is given in Whittier's line—

"We need, methinks, the prophet-hero still."

Historical Sketches of Scotland in Prose and Verse. By Mary Leslie. Illustrated. The Bryant Press, Toronto. 6×9 in. 174 pages.

Her Memory Book. By Helen Hayes. Illustrated. Harper & Bros., New York. 8×11 in. $2.

A highly decorated volume intended as a present for a girl, to be used for pleasant recollections, personal and social, all to be recorded in the ample blank pages.

House (The): Its Plan, Decoration, and Care. Parts I. and II. Lesson Paper Prepared by Isabel Bevier, Ph.M. Illustrated. The American School of Household Economics, Chicago. 5×8 in. Paper bound.

How to Collect Books. By J. Herbert Slater. The Macmillan Co., New York. 5½×8½ in. 205 pages. $2.

This volume appears in a series of valuable monographs for connoisseurs. Mr. J. H. Slater has been writing upon the subject for twenty-five years, and is regarded as one of the leading authorities in England. His annual compilation entitled "Book Prices Current," begun in 1887, has been of invaluable assistance to the amateur as well as the expert. His annual résumé in the London "Athenæum" of the season's sales has won for him a position of high authority. The book under notice might better be called a Primer of Book-Collecting. Much information, interspersed with illustrations, is crowded into less than two hundred pages. Mr. Slater is almost too positive in some of his statements, according to our view, notably as to the value of book-collecting as an investment. If there were fewer repetitions, the many interesting facts alluded to might have been profitably elaborated. With these slight exceptions, which will prove almost immaterial to the beginner in book-collecting, the manual may be taken as a most reliable, though somewhat dull, guide in this fascinating pursuit. The many illustrations, facsimiles, etc., are excellent and helpful.

Hundred Days (The). By Max Pemberton. Illustrated. D. Appleton & Co., New York. 5×7¾ in. 389 pages. $1.50.

Historical novel; period and background of real events, as title indicates, Napoleon's return from Elba to his fall at Waterloo; heroine, a fair adventuress in uniform who believes in the star of Napoleon; hero, an Englishman who is won by her to the service of the Man of Destiny. The story is stirring and the tale is picturesquely told; the plot is hackneyed.

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Imitation of Christ (The); With the Book of the Sacrament. By Thomas à Kempis. Translated from the Latin by John Payne. (Caxton Thin Paper Edition.) Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. 3½×6¼ in. 315 pages. $1.25, net.

Indexing: Principles, Rules, and Examples. New York State Library, Melvil Dewey, Director. Bulletin 94. Library School 19. The New York State Education Department, Albany, New York. 6½×9¾ in. 72 pages. 15c.

This pamphlet gives in a few pages an admirable exposition of the best methods of making an index. It will be of special value to practical book-makers. The author wisely states that it is not possible to devise rules which will secure satisfactory treatment in all cases, and that to suit various types of books and periodicals rules for index-making must be flexible. The rules here presented, however, are almost without exception extremely sensible, and the treatment of the entire subject is based on the most minute and intelligent study. The monograph reflects credit on the State Department which issues it.

Jean-François Millet and the Barbizon School. By Arthur Tomson. Illustrated. The Macmillan Co., New York. 6×8½ in. 231 pages. $2.25.

This volume will inevitably challenge comparison with Mrs. Ady's (Julia Cartwright's) biography. It is fortunate that we have one to offset the other, for in their respective directions each is valuable. Mr. Tomson has produced a biography of value not only to students of Millet's methods, but also to students of the Barbizon school, and, indeed, of French contemporary art. We confess to a feeling of disappointment, however, in laying down Mr. Tomson's book. It is a well-written volume, but it adds little to what was known already concerning Millet, Rousseau, Diaz, and Dupré. The most interesting chapter, to our mind, is the one in which he summarizes the influence of the French romantic school. The summary is valuable to those who would understand something of what lies behind the pictures of such variously contrasted artists as Jacque, Jules Breton, Monticelli, Bastien-Lepage, and Lhermitte. The selection of illustration is extraordinary. We find picture after picture of Diaz's figure pieces, not one of his forest scenes, and yet it was in the latter domain that he excelled. It is unfortunate also that the many pictures which illustrate the text are of such execution as to give little idea of the quality of the paintings they are supposed to represent.

Knock at a Venture. By Eden Phillpotts. The Macmillan Co., New York. 5×7¾ in. 353 pages. $1.50.

Those who know Mr. Phillpotts only by his grimly tragic tales will find in some of these short stories of Dartmoor an agreeable surprise, in that they are full of the most genial and kindly humor. Others, to be sure, sound the tragic note; but, taken as a whole, the volume leaves a delightful impression of quaint character, soft dialect, and exuberant but not grotesque fancy. In a sense, the stories have intimate connection, although in another sense they are totally distinct. At all events, they together put the country, the people, and the human passion that underlies a placid exterior into a harmonious and effective setting.

Lands of the Eastern Caliphate (The). By G. Le Strange. (Cambridge Geographical Series.) The Macmillan Co., New York. 5×8 in. 536 pages. $4.

A description of Mesopotamia, Persia, and Central Asia from the Muslim Conquest to Timur's time will be a welcome volume to students of historical geography. Mr. Le Strange begins with the early Muslim writers as authorities for his description, and concludes with those which describe the Central Asian lands in the fifteenth century—for with that century the mediæval period in Asia may be said to have come to an end. Mr. Le Strange is right in thinking that if Muslim history is ever to be interesting and rightly understood, the historical geography of the Near East during the Middle Ages must be worked out. The book is amply supplied with maps, and they are remarkably clear maps, too.

Lectures on the Philosophy of Kant and Other Philosophical Lectures and Essays. By the Late Henry Sidgwick. The Macmillan Co., New York. 5½×9 in. 475 pages. $3.25.

The late Professor Sidgwick, a masterly critic, left unpublished lectures and fragments which occupy the larger portion of this volume. They discuss the philosophical teachings of thinkers so widely contrasted as Kant, Thomas Hill Green, and Herbert Spencer. The remainder of the volume consists of essays reprinted from "Mind" and the "Journal of Philology." Of the lectures much the greater part is devoted to a vigorous criticism of Kant, and these were finished to their lamented author's satisfaction, while the others remain less complete.

Life of St. Patrick and His Place in History (The). By J. B. Bury, M.A. The Macmillan Co., New York. 5½×9 in. 404 pages. $3.25.

For the first time a critical biography now exists of this great evangelist. With a purely historical interest Dr. Bury has endeavored to draw from thorough study of the original sources of information whatever of fact they contain, and whatever probability they point to in a subject confessedly involved in controversy, conjecture, and obscurity. The result is a work whose technical merit is commensurate with its intrinsic interest. A truly historical figure, a pioneer of civilization as well as an apostle of Christianity, St. Patrick deserves the annual commemoration he receives. In the first half of the fifth century he organized and raised to power the Christianity already planted in Ireland, he won to it the pagan tribes of the west, he laid the foundation, by his introduction of the Latin tongue, for the schools of learning that flourished there in the next two centuries. That his work was partly undone after him does not detract from his desert of honor. The legends which naturally invest so heroic a figure are still worth telling as told here, but the historic reality stands forth in all distinctness. Nearly one-half of the

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volume is devoted to technical discussions of the sources and material of the history in appendices of rich value to the critical student. The main part of the work spreads before the general reader the sifted results of historical criticism.

Love Alone is Lord. By F. Frankfort Moore. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. 5×7½ in. 506 pages. $1.50.

A novel in which Lord Byron is hero, his cousin, Mary Chaworth, heroine, Lady Caroline Lamb a leading figure, and Miss Milbanke an incident, the story ending before Byron's marriage with her. The play is not equal to the caste. It is too much to expect any novelist to give us a real Byron. If the story follows history closely, as claimed, the world has long been astray in its conclusions as to why Byron and Mary did not wed. Lady Caroline Lamb is vivid, picturesque, and the most attractive bit in the book, although shown in some repellent attitudes. As a novel the book has vigor and interest; as a presentation of Byron the poet it is a failure.

Lynching of Jesus (The): A Review of the Legal Aspects of the Trial of Christ. By E. T. Wellford. The Franklin Printing Co., Newport News, Va. 5×7¼ in. 110 pages. For sale by the Presbyterial Committee of Publications, Richmond, Va. 50c., net. (Postpaid, 55c.)

Making of a Man (The). By Orison Swett Marden. The Lothrop Publishing Co., Boston. 5×7½ in. 307 pages. $1.25.

The cheerful philosophy which Dr. Marden has preached in previous books he insists upon in this, which consists of a series of talks especially intended for young men. Examples of the world's heroes are cited, the world's leaders of thought are liberally quoted, anecdotes are given; and thus, by precept, illustration, and in symposium of opinions, Dr. Marden reinforces his own teachings in regard to perseverance, "self-honor," courage, self-control, money, success, "moral daring," and kindred subjects.

Mary Queen of Scots: Her Life Story. By A. H. Millar, F. S. A. Scot. Illustrated. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. 4¼×7 in. 227 pages. $1.25, net.

There is probably no more fascinating subject for historical discussion than the life and fortunes of Mary Queen of Scots. The present small and well-written volume is the record of an attempt to place before the reader in impartial but very compact form the various events of Mary's checkered career. The biographer's position seems to be that, before condemning Mary, it is needful to appreciate the extremely difficult circumstances in which she was placed. Brought as a ruler to the people, from whom she had been absent since childhood, and, in the bigoted fashion of that day, trained to suspect all Protestants, she found only too late that many of the ambitious nobles near her throne were using her, and desired to use her, only for the furtherance of their own selfish plans. While the biographer admits that her misfortunes were often caused by her own willfulness, and that her courage sometimes led her into deeds of daring and foolhardiness, his just conclusion is that those who condemn her as an inexcusable sinner are quite as far astray in their estimate as those who deem her a faultless saint. Mr. Millar believes, and most readers will believe, that the errors committed by Mary Stuart were more of the heart than of the head.

Michel de Montaigne. By Edward Dowden, LL.D. (French Men of Letters.) The J. B. Lippincott Co., Philadelphia. 5×7¾ in. 383 pages. $1.50, net.

Reserved for later notice.

Mrs. Alderman Casey. By Irene Stoddard Capwell. Drawings by W. Herbert Dunton. R. F. Fenno & Co., New York. 4×7½ in. 175 pages.

Mrs. Radigan. By Nelson Lloyd. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. 4½×7 in. 344 pages. $1.

A rather clever satire, varying from the obvious to some delightfully subtle thrusts at modern American society. The hazy moral principles and the questionable methods adopted to secure social prominence have long been a target for ridicule among bright writers, yet this sketch has a certain originality and especial timeliness that gives it effect. The titled Englishman appears, looking for an heiress, and is attended by a knight who makes tactless remarks about America to his hosts. The complaisant Bishop plans Utopian schemes for purifying the race-track, and the motor-car flashes through the story at a terribly realistic speed. The cotillon leader marries, and subsides from comfort in his bachelor quarters to happiness in Lexington Avenue. New Yorkers will find amusement in this record of an energetic social climber, who mounted by way of a real estate office to a commanding position as the husband of Miss Pearl Veal.

Modern English. Book II. A Practical English Grammar with Exercises in Composition. By Henry P. Emerson and Ida C. Bender. The Macmillan Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 396 pages. 60c.

Only True Mother Goose Melodies (The). Introduction by the Rev. Edward Everett Hale, D.D. Illustrated. Lee & Shepard, Boston. 4½×5½ in. 103 pages. 60c.

Dr. Hale furnishes a readable introduction to this facsimile of an ancient edition of "Mother Goose," first published in 1833 in Boston. Many elderly people will remember having this book as children, and will rejoice to see the quaint woodcuts once more. Dr. Hale supplies some interesting topographical and biographical information about the Boston of 1833 and the origin of "Mother Goose," and, we need not say, does this in a friendly, cheerful, and agreeable way.

Poems of Gray and Collins (The). Pocket Classics. (Caxton Thin Paper Edition.) Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. 3½×6¼ in. 182 pages. $1.25, net.

Preliminaries of the Revolution, 1763-1775. By George Elliott Howard, Ph.D. (The American Nation, Vol. 8.) Library Edition. With Maps. Harper & Bros., New York. 5¼×8½ in. 359 pages. $2, net.

Few periods of American history have been

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so canvassed as that of the Revolution, and it was not to be expected that Dr. Howard, whose volume deals with the years of debate immediately preceding the appeal to arms, should make any strikingly original contribution to our knowledge of the causes and earlier phases of the struggle for independence. He has, however, marshaled the facts in such wise as to warrant his editor's belief that "this fresh study of the evidence results in a clearer view of the difficulties of the imperial problem, and brings out in sharper relief the reasons for the apparent paradox that the freest people then on earth insisted on and deserved a larger freedom." Developing the views set forth in earlier volumes of "The American Nation," Dr. Howard lays stress on the economic aspects of the relations between the colonies and the mother country, finding that war was inevitable because of inherent defects in the British colonial system, and that the mistaken policy of George III. and his advisers is accordingly to be regarded as merely the exciting, not the primary, cause of the conflict. Nevertheless, he does not incline to the opinion, now gaining ground in certain quarters, that the desire for independence was consciously nurtured long before the final rupture occurred. His treatment of the actors and events of the twelve years under review is, as a rule, impartial and informing, and though—*e. g.*, in his discussion of the significance of the Regulation movement—the presentation is not always as ample as might be desired, his book should be cordially welcomed by students of Revolutionary history.

Phyllis Burton: A Tale of New England. By Mrs. S. R. Graham Clark. Illustrated. The Griffith & Rowland Press, Philadelphia. 5×7¾ in. 489 pages. $1, net. (Postpaid, $1.14.)

Proposal Under Difficulties (A). A Farce. By John Kendrick Bangs. Illustrated. Harper & Bros., New York. 3½×5¼ in. 71 pages. 50c.

Rape of the Lock and Other Poems (The). By Alexander Pope. Edited by Elizabeth M. King. (Pocket American and English Classics.) The Macmillan Co., New York. 4×5¾ in. 202 pages. 25c.

Reminiscences of the Civil War. By General John B. Gordon. With Portraits. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. 5½×8½ in. 474 pages. $1.50.

A new and moderate-priced edition of one of the very best of Southern books of reminiscence, written by a famous Southern soldier.

Revival (The): A Symposium. By Bishop William F. McDowell, Rev. Edward B. Crawford, President Charles J. Little, Rev. J. H. MacDonald, Rev. John Thompson, Rev. W. E. Tilroe, D.D., Rev. P. H. Swift, D.D. Collected and Edited by Rev. J. H. MacDonald. Eaton & Mains, New York. 4½×7½ in. 147 pages. 75c., net.

Seven addresses before the Chicago Preachers' Meeting, designed to rouse interest in promoting a religious revival, are included in this volume. They are excellent as far as they go, but the collection as a whole lacks completeness and proportion. A statement in one of these addresses touches a side of the subject now of such pressing importance as to demand far more emphasis than it receives in this volume: "Every revival of consequence has originated in a reaction against unrighteousness; and, on the other hand, every revival that has lowered its ethical demand has ended in spiritual debility."

Runaway Donkey and Other Rhymes for Children (The). By Emilie Poulsson. Illustrated. The Lothrop Publishing Co., Boston. 7½×9½ in. 82 pages. $1.50.

Miss Poulsson here, as in her famous "Finger Tales," pleases and arouses the imagination of little children.

Russia from Within. By Alexander Ular. Henry Holt & Co., New York. 5½×8 in. 290 pages. $1.75, net.

Reserved for later notice.

Sir George Tressady. By Mrs. Humphry Ward. The Macmillan Co., New York. 5½×7½ in. 352 pages. $1.

A new edition of one of Mrs. Ward's well-known novels.

Songs and Lyrics from the Dramatists, 1583–1777. Pocket Classics. (Caxton Thin Paper Edition.) Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. 3½×6¼ in. 243 pages. $1.25, net.

Southern Girl in '61 (A). By Mrs. D. Giraud Wright. Illustrated. Doubleday, Page & Co., New York. 6×9¼ in. 258 pages. $2.75, net.

Another in the series of reminiscent volumes dealing with the social side of Secession times which seems to have been inaugurated with the appearance in 1903 of Myrta Lockett Avary's "A Virginia Girl in the Civil War." The present contribution is of special significance as coming from the pen of the daughter of Louis T. Wigfall, of Texas, who was first United States Senator, then Confederate Senator, and who, during the earlier period of the war, stood in very close sympathy with President Jefferson Davis, and later had sharp differences with him. In dealing with these differences and in setting forth the division of mind in Government circles concerning General Joseph E. Johnston—matters that have been occasion of much discussion among students of Secession War history—the book has a substantial interest that only the author could supply, and some of the correspondence introduced has the value of historical documents. The narrative begins in Texas, continues through the author's child-life in Washington; and, during her school days in Boston, carries the thread of the public story rather than her own, reproducing letters showing progress of events in the South. She reached Richmond just after the Battle of Manassas; her record ends with Kirby Smith's surrender; prominent men and women are introduced in incident, anecdote, and by portrait.

Story of Edinburgh (The). By Oliphant Smeaton. Illustrated. The Macmillan Co., New York. 4¼×7 in. 415 pages. $2.

As with other volumes in the Mediæval Towns Series, this volume packs an amazing amount of information in small compass, and serves it up, moreover, with commendable freedom from dryness and encyclopædic method. Perhaps the present book has a

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little more of archæological detail and a little less of dramatic story than some of the other books in the series, but Edinburgh has in its past too many thrilling episodes to make it possible not to hear the clatter of swords and the rallying of factions throughout this record. The pen-and-ink drawings are admirable, as might be assured by the fact that many of them are Herbert Railton's. The book is based on a larger volume published by Mr. Smeaton last year, but has been made an independent work, contains new matter, and in large part has been rewritten as well as condensed. It would be hard to find elsewhere in one volume of moderate compass so satisfactory a book about "The Queen of the North."

Study of John D. Rockefeller (A). By Marcus M. Brown. Published by the Author, Cleveland, Ohio. 5×7¾ in. 150 pages.

Tales of the Road. By Charles N. Crewdson. Illustrated. Thompson & Thomas, Chicago. 5×7¾ in. 352 pages. $1.50.

The author's object is not merely to tell amusing anecdotes about his own and others' experiences as commercial travelers, or drummers—to use the less elaborate and more common appellation—but to give some practical hints and suggestions to young men just beginning to "go on the road;" yet the book is, after all, chiefly a collection of anecdotes. Some of these are amusing; others are rather tedious. It cannot be said that the book takes a high place as regards style or expression, but that was hardly to be expected. Perhaps it may most aptly be compared with such a book as "Letters from a Self-Made Merchant to his Son," but it lacks the originality and shrewd homely humor which made that book so deservedly popular.

Trident and the Net (The). By the Author of "The Martyrdom of an Empress." Illustrated. Harper & Bros., New York. 5½×8½ in. 550 pages. $1.50, net.

It is not surprising that the author of "The Martyrdom of an Empress" should produce a novel. The material used in this bit of fiction is the same as that served in her other books. Opening with a graphic picture of Brittany, the background for two daring children, the son and daughter of a widowed Marquise, the scene changes to America, and closes in the sordid gloom of lodgings in New York. Loïc, the heir, of wonderful beauty and spirit, is ruined by circumstances and the evil management of his capricious mother. The profusion of sumptuous table furniture and glorious millinery is as kaleidoscopic as one always expects from this fluent writer.

Upton Letters (The). G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. 5×7½ in. 335 pages. $1.25, net.

Written by one who uses only his initials to a friend who is designated by the Christian name alone, these letters depend solely upon their intrinsic merit. This is unquestionably high. Without literary affectation, the style is that of a literary man. It is easy to believe that the writer, as he acknowledges, loves to write. Yet he is never garrulous. He strolls with his pen. He is introspective in a healthy way. Being a master in an English school, he writes much about boys—about the way they are taught and mistaught, about their traits, their ambitions, their sports, and their teachers. He says many a quotable thing; for instance, "I have a theory that in education it is better to encourage aptitudes than merely to correct deficiencies." Again, "I don't like vice in any shape, but I equally dislike a person who has a preference for manly vices over sentimental ones." Few essays are better than these letters; few books on education are more full of suggestion than the reflections of this English schoolmaster; and few journals draw a more credible portrait of a human mind that is worth knowing than these friendly confessions of a cultivated man. The end of the book is almost dramatic.

Vale of Tempe (The). By Madison J. Cawein. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. 5×7¾ in. 274 pages. $1.50, net.

Reserved for later notice.

Village Sermons. By the Late F. J. A. Hort, D.D., D.C.L., LL.D. The Macmillan Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 233 pages. $1.75.

Dr. Hort was not only a distinguished scholar, the joint editor with Dr. Westcott of the Greek text followed in the Revised Version of the New Testament, but also a man of noble Christian character. In reading these Sermons one may be disposed to think that the personality of the preacher formed a supplementary part of his message, which, apart from that, is less impressive when read than when spoken. Those who adopt the late Professor Shedd's definition of a sermon as "a sacred oration" will be inclined to class these excellent discourses as homilies.

Vortex (The). By Thomas McKean. The J. B. Lippincott Co., Philadelphia. 5×8 in. 324 pages. $1.50.

The characters represented here as being swept into a vortex of disaster were hardly worth saving. The story is weak and poorly written, annoyingly commonplace in expression, and quite unnecessary.

When Grandmamma Was Fourteen. By Marion Harland. Illustrated. The Lothrop Publishing Co., Boston. 5×7½ in. 399 pages. $1.25.

As a picture of life in ante-bellum Richmond the faithfulness and interest of this story would have to be pronounced upon by "Grandmamma's" contemporaries. As a story for school-girls it may be said to have a distinct mission in exposing the perils and unwisdom of the intense friendships to which, as a class, school-girls are disposed; and also in placing before their eyes in its true light the indelicacy of clandestine love-affairs.

Winning His Degree. By Everett T. Tomlinson. Illustrated. The Griffith & Rowland Press, Philadelphia. 5×8 in. 312 pages. $1, net. (Postpaid, $1.10.)

Young England: An Illustrated Magazine for Boys Throughout the English-Speaking World. Twenty-sixth Annual Vol., 1904–5. 57 Ludgate Hill, London, England. 7½×11 in. 484 pages.

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"Honor Among Clergymen"

[Dr. Algernon S. Crapsey's article with the above title (The Outlook, September 2, 1905) has elicited a number of replies, mostly from clergymen of the Episcopal Church. We give here that one of these replies which contains the most salient points, with Mr. Crapsey's response. An editorial on this subject will be found on another page. Here the discussion of this question in our pages must for the present stop.—THE EDITORS.]

SOME QUESTIONS FOR DR. CRAPSEY

My dear Dr. Crapsey:

I have read with close attention, and more than usual interest, your communication under the head of "Honor Among Clergymen," in The Outlook of September 2. Such an appeal to public sentiment allows, of course, if it does not invite, a similarly public answer. I trust that the fact of my being a clergyman of the same religious body as yourself, not to speak of the acquaintance which it has been my privilege to have with you in the past, or of the mutual respect which I am sure exists between us, will seem to you to justify an attempt at one such answer. But the thoughts which your article awakens in my mind naturally shape themselves into questions; and these questions I will venture now to address to you, without, however, at all expecting that they will elicit a categorical reply.

1. Do you mean to be understood as holding that "the two commandments of the law"—"the Lord's Prayer" and "the five laws of righteousness as we find them written in the Sermon on the Mount"—constitute *all* "the basic truths of Christianity" that have "been given to us by Jesus Christ"?

2. The above-named teachings of Jesus Christ relate solely to matters of duty; are there not other teachings of Jesus Christ just as "basic," just as authoritative, just as binding, which relate to experience, and others still which relate to abstract truth?

3. In other words, do the above ethical teachings comprise all of the "foundation" laid by Jesus Christ?

4. Do you regard it as possible that any of the teachings of Jesus Christ with regard to the "fundamentals" of religious truth and life could be found to be untrue?

5. You and I are ministers of a particular religious body called the Protestant Episcopal Church; are we or are we not bound by the provisions and directions of that body respecting its ministers?

6. Whatever may be the liberties and rights of the members of that body in their private and individual capacity, is there no distinction to be made between their rights and privileges as such, and the obligations and responsibilities of those who are formally selected and set apart as its authorized officers?

7. When you and I were solemnly set apart to the office and work of the deacon in the Church of God, we declared our unfeigned belief of "all the Canonical Scriptures of the Old and New Testament," and were ordained under the condition—among others—of that declaration; if now the time should come that either of us should disbelieve any of the canonical Scriptures aforesaid, in the sense implied in our ordination vow, would or would not the validity of that ordination be impaired?

8. In that act of ordination we promised to "reverently obey" our Bishop and other chief ministers, who, "according to the canons of the Church, might have the charge and government over us;" if the time should come when we could no longer conscientiously render such reverent obedience, could we longer honorably retain the ministry committed to us by the laying on of their hands?

9. From whom, in our ordination as deacons, did we tacitly acknowledge receipt of authority to execute that office, to "read the Gospel," and "to preach"?

10. When, after a year or more of trial and probation, we were, with still greater solemnity, ordained to the priesthood, and declared our heartfelt conviction that we were called to that office and ministry "according to the canons of this Church," was or was not that stipulation binding, so that if the time ever came when we felt that the canons of the Church required more of us than we could honestly and conscientiously render, the validity of our commission would be impaired?

11. In that solemn ordination to the priesthood did we promise and engage to give our diligence "always so to minister the Doctrine and Sacraments and the Discipline of Christ . . . as this Church hath received the same;" and if so, does the spirit and nature of the obligation then and there and thus entered into allow us thereafter to administer the said word and sacraments *not* as this Church has received the same, but according to our own private convictions, gained, as we may believe, by new and clearer light?

12. In other words, has any clergyman who has received ordination to the priesthood by the hands of a bishop, according to the form in the Book of Common Prayer, as a minister of the Episcopal Church, the right, either legal or moral or in any other wise, to substitute his own private interpretation of doctrine, sacrament, discipline, or other provision of the Church whose minister he has consented to be, for the formal and pronounced interpretation thereof set forth by the Church itself?

13. Would it or would it not be more honorable in a clergyman who has come to feel,

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under new and clearer light and leading, as he believes, that he can no longer exercise the ministry of the Church for which the Church has commissioned him, according to the mind and will of such Church as expressed in its symbols and liturgy, its rubrics and canons, to lay down that ministry as a sacred trust which he can no longer faithfully and truthfully fulfill?

14. Does a minister's ministry depend upon the authorization of the particular religious body which for the time being he may represent, so that if he surrenders that authorization he is cut off forever after from the exercise of all or any ministry of the truth of God as he himself may see and receive the same?

15. In that for which Dr. Temple, afterward the Archbishop of Canterbury, was "violently assailed as disloyal," did he identify "the two commandments of the law, the Lord's Prayer and the five laws of righteousness as we find them in the Sermon on the Mount," as alone and exclusively constituting the "basic truths of Christianity," at the same time denying and repudiating certain equally great spiritual truths of religion and certain equally great facts and realities of Christian experience as likewise included in the fundamental teachings of our Lord? In other words, did the late Archbishop of Canterbury ever reject the fundamental articles of the Christian faith as contained in the Apostles' and Nicene Creeds or any one of them?

16. When our Lord said to his infant Church gathered around him at the last, "Go, teach all nations, . . . teaching them to observe all things whatsoever I have commanded you," did he or did he not give to that Church a "teaching power"—that is, a "teaching" authority?

17. Is the clergyman, by virtue of being a clergyman, superior to the Church by which he is commissioned; or is the Church which commissions the clergyman superior to the clergyman?

18. Do you make any distinction between the "clergyman" and the "prophet," and are not the rights and obligations of the "clergyman" prescribed and defined in a way that those of the "prophet" are not?

19. If a "clergyman" ceases to be a clergyman, is there anything to prevent his still being a "prophet," provided he really have anything to say for God to men?

20. When you and I can no longer truthfuily, conscientiously, and faithfully fulfill our vows as "clergymen" of the Church whose ordained and authorized ministers we are, ministering the word of God and the sacraments as the Church has received the same, would it not be more honorable in us, not to say more effectual, to decline longer to serve as her accredited ministers and to seek what we believed to be the larger liberty and freer sphere of "prophets" of the Most High? Faithfully yours,

EDWARD ABBOTT.

Cambridge, Massachusetts.

DR. CRAPSEY'S REPLY

My dear Dr. Abbott:

I can think of nothing that would be more helpful to the cause of truth and righteousness than a full, free, and dispassionate discussion of the questions raised by my article as expressed in your letter. Such a discussion is, however, not possible in the space allowed us. I assure you that I am not unconscious of the moral perplexities involved in the position assumed in my article; but these are not of my creating, they inhere in the conditions out of which this contention arises. You and I represent two principles that have been in conflict since the beginning of creation. These two conflicting forces are life and organism. Life creates organism. Organism limits life. Life is eternal. Organism is temporal. When organism no longer yields itself to the uses of life, life forsakes it and the organism perishes. You and my various critics are pleading the cause of organism, I am pleading the cause of life. In the Church the personal soul is the source of all life. Ecclesiastical bodies with their ministries, scriptures, and creeds are simply the organism through which the life of the personal soul expresses itself. Without the personal soul the Church would have no existence. There is not a truth to-day in the world which did not have its origin in the soul or mind of some one man. Man is the divine organism through which and to which all truth comes. Man has intelligence to discern the true from the false; he has conscience to judge between the righteous and the wicked; he has affections which lead him to love that which seems to him to be lovely, he has desires which are to him motives of action. His intelligence, his conscience, his desires, his affections, are living forces subject to the laws of life. Now, the Church is simply a society or association of men organized for a special purpose; the Church life is nothing else than the sum of the life of the men who compose it. The ministry of the Church is made up of men who differ from other men not in nature, but in function; that one man should be a clergyman and another a layman is a mere matter of convenience and efficiency. The clergyman was a man before he was a minister, and did not surrender any of the essential rights of his manhood in becoming a minister. With these principles in mind, and looking upon your questions as the headings of a brief for the organization, I will, by way of reply, give a few headings of a brief for the man, and leave the public to which we both appeal to decide between us.

If the man owes duties to the Church, the Church owes duties to the man. If the Church asks the man to devote his life to its service, the Church must respect the laws of that life; the Church sins against the man if it starves his body, cramps his intelligence, deadens his feelings, and depraves his conscience.

When the Church intrusts a man with the teaching office, it must take into account the

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personal equation, and expect him to bring out of his treasures things new and old. If the Church wants simply verbal repetition, it does not require men in its teaching ministry; it can make use of the phonograph.

Man is subject to the law of growth. He increases in wisdom as well as in stature; the Church has just the same right to require a man to have the same intellectual conceptions and spiritual aspirations at eighteen and eighty that it would to require him to have the same weight and measure.

The race as well as the individual is governed by the law of development; a man of the twentieth century cannot, if he would, think exactly with the man of the fourth century. The creed or opinion of one age cannot, in the nature of things, be the creed or opinion of a later age. The conception of the universe which is implied in the catholic creeds, with its three divisions of hades, the earth, and heaven, with its God sitting on a throne and coming down to visit the earth, has utterly perished. The creeds can no longer be professed in their original meaning; they must be changed either in terms or by interpretation.

The Church has no authority in matters of astronomy, geology, biology, or history. All statements in scriptures or creeds which come within the province of these sciences must be subject to scientific investigation and judgment.

The Church does not exist for the purpose of teaching philosophy or metaphysics, but to manifest the life of God in the world. "The Spirit of the Lord is upon me, because he hath anointed me to preach the gospel to the poor; he hath sent me to heal the broken-hearted, to preach deliverance to the captives, and the recovering of sight to the blind, to set at liberty them that are bound."

The Church may not call upon its clergy to cry up its own doctrines and cry down the doctrines of other religious bodies. It must apply the same critical principles to the life of Christ which it uses to judge the life of Buddha.

The clergyman is not the hired man of the ecclesiastical organization; he is the servant of God and the people.

If the Church cannot assimilate personality, the Church dies. The various churches to-day are looking death in the face. They cannot assimilate living souls with living thoughts.

As a sign of the times, I will close with an extract from a letter by a man of world-wide fame in his line of life—which is that of a moral leader. This letter is written to a friend who is a man of deep spiritual instincts, and is as follows: "I think I wrote you about young E——, graduate of —— College, who goes back there next week to some educational employment, whom I was endeavoring to dissuade from entering the ministry as a life vocation. Well, he was in here yesterday, and tells me he has decided to turn aside at least temporarily from the pursuit of philosophy and theology and to devote himself to the science of economics, which I had urged him to do. I hope I have been instrumental in diverting a brilliant young man from an effete profession to a useful and effective career."

Which is greater, the creed or the man?
And will you, to save the creed, lose the man?
And here I rest my case.

ALGERNON S. CRAPSEY.

The Geneva Conference

If it was true, as Professor Chantre said in welcoming the Conference, that Calvin scattered the representatives of free thought to the four winds of heaven, they came flocking back this August like the gulls of Lake Leman to the third "International Council of Unitarian and Other Liberal Religious Thinkers and Workers." From ten different lands and from more than a score of religious organizations they gathered in the aula of the University, where reports from the liberal Protestant churches of Great Britain, France, Germany, Holland, Italy, Hungary, Belgium, and the United States were heard, in addition to which Madame Loyson spoke in behalf of the faith of Mohammed, and Mr. Sen, of Calcutta, for the Brahmo-Somaj. A brilliant rabbi of France expounded Jewish liberality. The eloquent preacher, Père Hyacinthe, whose wonderful oratory has lost none of its fire, though more than eighty summers have passed over his head, was one of the strongest advocates of the spirit of unity and love. The significant thing about this gathering was the contrast between the present and the past; that Dr. M. J. Savage, for instance, should have stood in Calvin's pulpit, in the great, dim cathedral, and preached. On the walls of the cathedral is a tablet to the memory of the "four pious foreigners" who helped to bring about the Protestant Reformation. This time the foreigners were more than four hundred strong, all working for the reformation of the world. Another interesting feature of the week was the hour spent at the expiatory monument to Servetus erected by "sons of Calvin." The British and American Unitarians laid a wreath of ivy and palms at its foot, and short addresses were made by Miss Taggart, of England, and the Rev. S. J. Barrows, of New York. The latter called special attention to the fact that that monument commemorated not only the moral victory of the martyr, but that it was at the same time a tribute to the brave men who had protested against putting Servetus to death—men like Castellio, Zirkenden, and the others—though Geneva has not yet reared stones to their memory. Mr. Edwin D. Mead recalled the influence Calvin had exerted on the politics of the world, and his sincerity and courage were held up as models that might well be imitated. The tone of the whole meeting was optimistic, even though certain speakers felt that religious growth was slow. The one point on which all united was that religion is not a matter of belief in creeds, but of conscience and life.

ISABEL C. BARROWS.

Geneva, Switzerland.

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